

Coagulation-fragmentation model for animal group-size statistics

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Abstract

We study coagulation-fragmentation equations inspired by a simple model proposed in fisheries science to explain data for the size distribution of schools of pelagic fish. Although the equations lack detailed balance and admit no H -theorem, we are able to develop a rather complete description of equilibrium profiles and large-time behavior, based on recent developments in complex function theory for Bernstein and Pick functions. In the large-population continuum limit, a scaling-invariant regime is reached in which all equilibria are determined by a single scaling profile. This universal profile exhibits power-law behavior crossing over from exponent $-\frac{2}{3}$ for small size to $-\frac{3}{2}$ for large size, with an exponential cut-off.

Key words: Detailed balance, fish schools, Bernstein functions, complete monotonicity, Fuss-Catalan sequences, convergence to equilibrium.

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1 Introduction

A variety of methods have been used to account for the observed statistics of animal group size in population ecology. The present work focuses on coagulation-fragmentation equations that are motivated by studies of Niwa [23, 24, 25, 26] and subsequent work by Ma et al. [19], to explain observations in fisheries science that concern the size distribution of schools of pelagic fish, which roam in the mid-ocean.

In [25] and [26], Niwa reached the striking conclusion that a large amount of observational data indicates that the fish school-size distribution $(f_i)_{i \geq 1}$ is well described by a scaling relation of the form

$$f_i \propto \frac{1}{i_{\text{av}}} \Phi\left(\frac{i}{i_{\text{av}}}\right), \quad i_{\text{av}} = \frac{\sum_i i^2 f_i}{\sum_i i f_i}. \quad (1.1)$$

The scaling factor i_{av} is the expected group size averaged over individuals, and the universal profile Φ is highly non-Gaussian—instead it is a power law with an exponential cutoff at large size. Specifically Niwa proposed that

$$\Phi(x) = x^{-1} \exp\left(-x + \frac{1}{2}xe^{-x}\right). \quad (1.2)$$

Note that there are no fitting parameters.

Niwa discussed how this description might be justified for pelagic fish in a couple of different ways. Of particular interest for us here is the fact that he performed kinetic Monte-Carlo simulations of a coagulation-fragmentation or merging-splitting process with the following features:

- The ocean is modeled as a discrete set of sites that fish schools may occupy.
- Schools jump to a randomly chosen site at discrete time steps.
- Two schools arriving at the same site merge.
- Any school may split in two with fixed probability per time step,
 - independent of the school size i ,
 - with uniform likelihood among the $i - 1$ splitting outcomes

$$(1, i - 1), (2, i - 2), \dots, (i - 1, 1) .$$

Niwa's model is simple and compelling. It corresponds to mean-field coagulation-fragmentation equations with a constant rate kernel for coagulation and constant overall fragmentation rate; see equations (2.1)-(2.3) and (2.7) in section 2 below. Such equations were explicitly written and studied in a time-discrete form by Ma et al. in [19]. Yet the existing mathematical theory of coagulation-fragmentation equations reveals little about the nature of their equilibria and the dynamical behavior of solutions.

The reason for this dearth of theory is that the existing results that concern equilibria and long-time behavior almost all deal with systems that admit equilibria in detailed balance, with equal rates of merging and splitting for each reaction taking clusters of sizes i, j to one of size $i + j$. For modeling animal group sizes in particular, Gueron and Levin [10] discussed several coagulation-fragmentation models for continuous size distributions with explicit formulae for equilibria having detailed balance. However, Niwa argued explicitly in [25] that the observational data for pelagic fish is inconsistent with these models.

One of the principal contributions of the present paper is a demonstration that the coagulation-fragmentation system achieves a scaling-invariant regime in the large-population, continuum limit. In this limit, all equilibrium size distributions $f_{\text{eq}}(x)$, $x \in (0, \infty)$, are described rigorously in terms of a single scaling profile Φ_* , with

$$f_{\text{eq}}(x) \propto \frac{1}{x_{\text{av}}} \Phi_* \left(\frac{x}{x_{\text{av}}} \right), \quad x_{\text{av}} = \frac{\int_0^\infty x^2 f_{\text{eq}}(x) dx}{\int_0^\infty x f_{\text{eq}}(x) dx}. \quad (1.3)$$

The profile Φ_* admits a series representation described in subsection 5.4 below, and we provide considerable qualitative information regarding its shape. In particular,

$$\Phi_*(x) = g(x) e^{-\frac{8}{9}x}, \quad (1.4)$$

where g is a *completely monotone* function (infinitely differentiable with derivatives that alternate in sign), having the following asymptotic behavior:

$$g(x) \sim 6^{1/3} \frac{x^{-2/3}}{\Gamma(1/3)}, \quad \text{when } x \rightarrow 0, \quad (1.5)$$

$$g(x) \sim \frac{9}{8\sqrt{6}} \frac{x^{-3/2}}{\Gamma(1/2)}, \quad \text{when } x \rightarrow \infty. \quad (1.6)$$

Moreover, Φ_* is a proper probability density, satisfying

$$1 = \int_0^\infty \Phi_*(x) dx = 6 \int_0^\infty x \Phi_*(x) dx = 6 \int_0^\infty x^2 \Phi_*(x) dx. \quad (1.7)$$

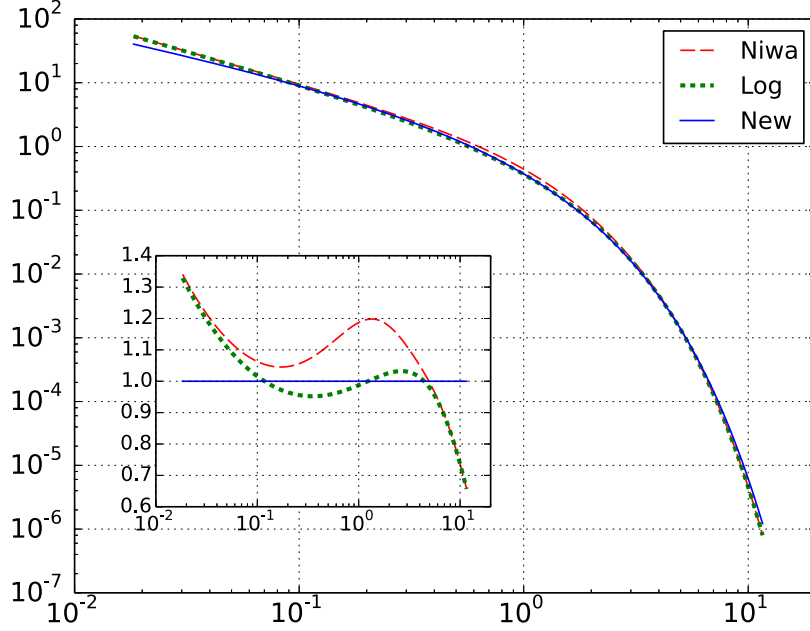


Figure 1: Log-log plots of $\Phi(x)$ vs. x for Niwa's, logarithmic, and new distribution profiles. Inset: Ratios Φ/Φ_* for all three cases.

The crossover in the power-law behavior exhibited by the exponential prefactor $g(x)$, from $x^{-2/3}$ for small x to $x^{-3/2}$ for large x , suggests that it could be difficult in practice to distinguish the profile in (1.4) from the expression in (1.2). Indeed, in Figure 1 we compare Niwa's profile in (1.2), as well as the simple logarithmic distribution profile

$$\Phi(x) = x^{-1} \exp(-x),$$

to the new profile Φ_* in (1.4), computed using (5.7) and 45 terms from the power series in subsection 5.4. As reported in [19], Niwa noted that as far as the quality of data fitting is concerned, the nested exponential term in (1.2) makes little difference, so the simpler logarithmic profile serves about as well. If one compares Figure 1 here with Figure 5 in [25], this also appears to be the case with the new profile Φ_* , despite the difference in power-law exponents for small x and the slightly slower exponential decay rate in the tail of Φ_* as compared to the other cases ($e^{-8x/9}$ vs. e^{-x}). In the 'shoulder' region of the log-log plot (which covers the bulk of the empirical data in Figure 5 of [25]), the new profile differs by only a few percent from

the logarithmic profile and by less than 20 percent from the profile in (1.2).

In addition to this description of equilibrium, we develop a rather complete theory of dynamics in the continuum limit, for weak solutions whose initial data are finite measures on $(0, \infty)$. We establish convergence to equilibrium for all solutions that correspond to finite total population (finite first moment). Furthermore, for initial data with infinite first moment, solutions converge to zero in a weak sense, meaning that the population concentrates in clusters whose size grows without bound as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

Previous mathematical studies of equilibria and dynamical behavior in coagulation-fragmentation models include work of Aizenman and Bak [1], Carr [4], Carr and da Costa [5], Laurençot and Mischler [15], and Cañizo [3], as well as a substantial literature related to Becker-Doering equations (which take into account only clustering events that involve the gain or loss of a single individual). These works all concern models having detailed balance, and rely on some form of H theorem, or entropy/entropy-dissipation arguments. For models without detailed balance, there is work of Fournier and Mischler [8], concerning initial data near equilibrium in discrete systems, and a recent study by Laurençot and van Roessel [17] of a model with a multiplicative coagulation rate kernel in critical balance with a fragmentation mechanism that produces an infinite number of fragments.

Arguments involving entropy are not available for the models that we need to treat here. Instead, it turns out to be possible to use methods from complex function theory related to the Laplace transform. Such methods have been used to advantage to analyze the dynamics of pure coagulation equations with special rate kernels [20, 21]; also see [16, 17].

Specifically what is relevant for the present work is the theory of Bernstein functions, as developed in the book of Schilling et al. [28]. In terms of the “Bernstein transform,” the coagulation-fragmentation equation in the continuum limit transforms to a nonlocal integro-differential equation which turns out to permit a detailed analysis of equilibria and long-time dynamics.

Unfortunately, the Bernstein transform does not appear to produce a tractable form for the discrete-size coagulation-fragmentation equations coming from [19] that correspond to Niwa’s merging-splitting process with the features described above. We have found, however, that a simple change in the fragmentation mechanism allows one to reduce the Bernstein transform *exactly* to the same equation as obtained for the continuum limit. One only needs to change the splitting rule to assign uniform likelihood among the $i + 1$ splitting outcomes

$$(0, i), (1, i - 1), \dots, (i, 0).$$

In the extreme cases, of course, no splitting actually happens. This change effectively slows the fragmentation rate for small groups. However, the analysis becomes remarkably simpler, as we will see below.

In particular, for this discrete-size model, we can characterize its equilibrium distributions (which depend now on total population) in terms of completely monotone sequences with exponential cutoff. Whenever the total population is initially finite, every solution converges to equilibrium strongly with respect to a size-weighted norm. And for infinite total population, again the population concentrates in ever-larger clusters—the size distribution converges to zero pointwise while the zeroth moment goes to a nonzero constant.

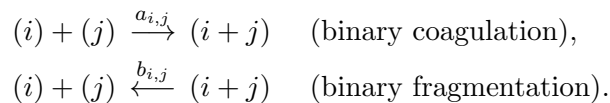
The plan of the paper is as follows. In section 2 we describe the coagulation-fragmentation models under study in both the discrete-size setting (Model D) and continuous-size setting (Model C). A summary of results from the theory of Bernstein functions appears in section 3. Our analysis of Model C is carried out in sections 4–9 (Part I), and Model D is treated in sections 10–13 (Part II). Lastly, in Part III (sections 14–16) we relate Model D to a discretization of Model C, and prove a discrete-to-continuum limit theorem.

2 Coagulation-fragmentation Models D and C

In this section we describe the coagulation-fragmentation mean-field rate equations that model Niwa’s merging-splitting simulations, and the corresponding equations for both discrete-size and continuous-size distributions that we focus upon in this paper.

2.1 Discrete-size distributions

We begin with a general description of coagulation-fragmentation equations for a system consisting of clusters (i) having discrete sizes $i \in \mathbb{N}^* = \{1, 2, \dots\}$. Clusters can merge or split according to the following reactions:



Here $a_{i,j}$ is the coagulation rate (i.e., the probability that clusters (i) and (j) with (unordered) respective sizes i and j merge into the cluster $(i+j)$ of size $i+j$ per unit of time) and $b_{i,j}$ is the fragmentation rate (i.e., the probability that a cluster $(i+j)$ splits into two clusters (i) and (j) per unit of time). Both $a_{i,j}$ and $b_{i,j}$ are assumed nonnegative, and symmetric in i, j .

We focus on a statistical description of this system in terms of the number density $f_i(t)$ of clusters of size i at time t . The size distribution $f(t) = (f_i(t))_{i \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ evolves according to the discrete coagulation-fragmentation equations, written in strong form as follows:

$$\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial t}(t) = Q_a(f)_i(t) + Q_b(f)_i(t), \quad (2.1)$$

$$Q_a(f)_i(t) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} a_{j,i-j} f_j(t) f_{i-j}(t) - \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{i,j} f_i(t) f_j(t), \quad (2.2)$$

$$Q_b(f)_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} b_{i,j} f_{i+j}(t) - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} b_{j,i-j} f_i(t). \quad (2.3)$$

Here, the terms in $Q_a(f)_i(t)$ (resp. in $Q_b(f)_i(t)$) account for gain and loss of clusters of size i due to aggregation/coagulation (resp. breakup/fragmentation). It is often useful to write this system in weak form, requiring that for any suitable test function φ_i (in a class to be specified later),

$$\frac{d}{dt} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \varphi_i f_i(t) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{\infty} (\varphi_{i+j} - \varphi_i - \varphi_j) (a_{i,j} f_i(t) f_j(t) - b_{i,j} f_{i+j}(t)) \quad (2.4)$$

This equation can be recast as follows, in a form more suitable for describing the continuous-size analog:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \varphi_i f_i(t) &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{\infty} (\varphi_{i+j} - \varphi_i - \varphi_j) a_{i,j} f_i(t) f_j(t) \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} (\varphi_i - \varphi_j - \varphi_{i-j}) b_{j,i-j} \right) f_i(t). \end{aligned} \quad (2.5)$$

Taking $\varphi_i = i$, we obtain the formal conservation of total population (corresponding to mass in physical systems):

$$\frac{d}{dt} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i f_i(t) = 0. \quad (2.6)$$

However, depending on the rates, it can happen that population decreases due to a flux to infinite size. This phenomenon is known as gelation, associated with formation of infinite-size clusters).

The model written in [19] essentially corresponds to a specific choice of rate coefficients which we take in the form

$$a_{i,j} = \alpha, \quad b_{i,j} = \frac{\beta}{i+j-1}. \quad (2.7)$$

With these coefficients, the coagulation rate α is independent of cluster sizes. Moreover, the overall fragmentation rate for the breakdown of clusters of size i into clusters of any smaller size is given by

$$\frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} b_{j,i-j} = \frac{1}{2} \beta.$$

This rate is constant, independent of i , and these clusters break into pairs with sizes $(1, i-1), (2, i-2), \dots, (i-1, 1)$ with equal probability.

As mentioned earlier, we have found that a variant of this model is far more accessible to analysis by the transform methods which we will employ. Namely, we can imagine that clusters of size i now split into pairs $(0, i), (1, i-1), \dots, (i, 0)$ with equal probability, and take the rate coefficients in the form

$$a_{i,j} = \alpha, \quad b_{i,j} = \frac{\beta}{i+j+1}. \quad (2.8)$$

We refer to the coagulation-fragmentation equations (2.1)-(2.3) with the coefficients in (2.8) as **Model D** (D for discrete size). This model also arises in a natural way as a discrete approximation of Model C; see Section 14. The overall effective fragmentation rate for clusters of size i becomes $\frac{1}{2}\beta\frac{i-1}{i+1}$, because we do not actually have clusters of size zero.

In general, an equilibrium solution $f = (f_i)$ of equations (2.1)-(2.3) is in *detailed balance* if

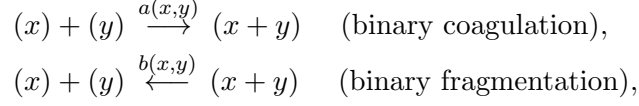
$$a_{i,j} f_i f_j = b_{i,j} f_{i+j} \quad (2.9)$$

for all $i, j \in \mathbb{N}^*$. It is easy to see that for neither choice of coefficients in (2.7) nor (2.8) do the equations admit an equilibrium in detailed balance.

2.2 Continuous-size distributions

To study systems with large populations and typical cluster sizes, some simplicity is gained by passing to a continuum model in which clusters (x) may assume a continuous range of sizes $x \in \mathbb{R}_+ = (0, \infty)$. The corresponding

reactions are written schematically now as



where $a(x, y)$ and $b(x, y)$ are the coagulation and fragmentation rates, respectively. Again, both a and b are nonnegative and symmetric.

The distribution of cluster sizes is now described in terms of a (cumulative) distribution function $F_t(x)$, which denotes the number density of clusters with size in $(0, x]$ at time t . According to probabilistic convention, we use the same notation F_t to denote the measure on $(0, \infty)$ with this distribution function; thus we write

$$F_t(x) = \int_{(0,x]} F_t(dx).$$

The measure F_t evolves according to the following size-continuous coagulation-fragmentation equation, which we write in weak form. One requires that for any suitable test function $\varphi(x)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} \varphi(x) F_t(dx) &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}_+^2} (\varphi(x+y) - \varphi(x) - \varphi(y)) a(x, y) F_t(dx) F_t(dy) \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} \left(\int_0^x (\varphi(x) - \varphi(y) - \varphi(x-y)) b(y, x-y) dy \right) F_t(dx). \end{aligned} \tag{2.10}$$

Taking $\varphi(x) = x$, we obtain the formal conservation of total population:

$$\frac{d}{dt} m_1(F_t) = 0, \tag{2.11}$$

where in general, we denote the k^{th} moment of F_t by

$$m_k(F_t) := \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} x^k F_t(dx).$$

However, again there might be loss of mass due to gelation, and now also mass flux to zero may be possible (shattering, associated with the break-up of clusters to zero-size dust).

The specific rate coefficients that we will study correspond to constant coagulation rates and constant overall binary fragmentation rates with uniform distribution of fragments are

$$a(x, y) = A, \quad b(x, y) = \frac{B}{x+y}, \tag{2.12}$$

We refer to the coagulation-fragmentation equations (2.10) with these coefficients as **Model C** (C for continuous size).

For size distributions with density, written as $F_t(dx) = f(x, t) dx$, Model C is written formally in strong form as follows:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}(x, t) = A Q_a(f)(x, t) + B Q_b(f)(x, t), \quad (2.13)$$

$$Q_a(f)(x, t) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^x f(y, t) f(x - y, t) dy - f(x, t) \int_0^\infty f(y, t) dy, \quad (2.14)$$

$$Q_b(f)(x, t) = -\frac{1}{2} f(x, t) + \int_x^\infty \frac{f(y, t)}{y} dy. \quad (2.15)$$

To argue that there are no equilibrium solutions of Model C in detailed balance, we need a suitable definition of detailed balance for the equations (2.10) in weak form. In section 9 below we will propose such a definition, and verify that no finite measures on $(0, \infty)$ satisfy it.

2.3 Scaling relations for Models D and C

By simple scalings, we can relate the solutions of Models D and C to solutions of the same models with conveniently chosen coefficients.

Let us begin with Model D. Suppose $\hat{f}(t) = (\hat{f}_i(t))_{i \in \mathbb{N}^*}$ is a solution of Model D for the particular coefficients $\alpha = \beta = 2$. Then a solution of Model D for general coefficients $\alpha, \beta > 0$ is given by

$$f_i(t) := \frac{\beta}{\alpha} \hat{f}_i(\beta t/2). \quad (2.16)$$

For the purposes of analysis, then it suffices to treat the case $\alpha = \beta = 2$, as we assume below.

For Model C we have a similar expression. If $\hat{F}_t(x)$ is a weak solution of Model C for particular coefficients $A = B = 2$, then a solution for general $A, B > 0$ is given by

$$F_t(x) := \frac{B}{A} \hat{F}_{Bt/2}(x). \quad (2.17)$$

Thus it suffices to deal with the case $A = B = 2$ as below.

Importantly, Model C has an additional scaling invariance involving dilation of size. If $\hat{F}_t(x)$ is any solution, for any A and B , then

$$F_t(x) := \hat{F}_t(Lx) \quad (2.18)$$

is also a solution, for the same A and B . Moreover, if we suppose that $\hat{F}_t(x)$ has first moment $\hat{m}_1 = \int_0^\infty x \hat{F}_t(dx) = 1$, then we can obtain a solution $F_t(x)$ with arbitrary finite first moment

$$m_1 = \int_0^\infty x F_t(dx) \quad (2.19)$$

by taking $L = 1/m_1$, so that

$$F_t(x) = \hat{F}_t(x/m_1). \quad (2.20)$$

For solutions with (fixed) total population, it therefore suffices to analyze the case that $m_1 = 1$.

3 Bernstein functions and transforms

Throughout this paper we make use of various results from the theory of Bernstein functions, as laid out in the book [28]. We summarize here a number of key properties of Bernstein functions that we need in the sequel.

Recall that a function $g: (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is *completely monotone* if it is infinitely differentiable and its derivatives satisfy $(-1)^n g^{(n)}(x) \geq 0$ for all real $x > 0$ and integer $n \geq 0$. By Bernstein's theorem, g is completely monotone if and only if it is the Laplace transform of some (Radon) measure on $[0, \infty)$.

Definition 3.1. *A function $U: (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a Bernstein function if it is infinitely differentiable, nonnegative, and its derivative U' is completely monotone.*

The main representation theorem for these functions [28, Thm. 3.2] associates to each Bernstein function U a unique *Lévy triple* (a_0, a_∞, F) as follows. (Below, the notation $a \wedge b$ means the minimum of a and b .)

Theorem 3.2. *A function $U: (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a Bernstein function if and only if it has the representation*

$$U(s) = a_0 s + a_\infty + \int_{(0, \infty)} (1 - e^{-sx}) F(dx), \quad s \in (0, \infty), \quad (3.1)$$

where $a_0, a_\infty \geq 0$ and F is a measure satisfying

$$\int_{(0, \infty)} (x \wedge 1) F(dx) < \infty. \quad (3.2)$$

In particular, the triple (a_0, a_∞, F) uniquely determines U and vice versa.

We point out that U determines a_0 and a_∞ via the relations

$$a_0 = \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \frac{U(s)}{s}, \quad a_\infty = U(0^+) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} U(s). \quad (3.3)$$

Definition 3.3. *Whenever (3.1) holds, we call U the **Bernstein transform** of the Lévy triple (a_0, a_∞, F) . If $a_0 = a_\infty = 0$, we call U the Bernstein transform of the Lévy measure F , and write $U = \tilde{F}$.*

Many basic properties of Bernstein functions follow from Laplace transform theory. Yet Bernstein functions have beautiful and distinctive properties that are worth delineating separately. The second statement in the following proposition is proved in Lemma 2.3 of [13].

Proposition 3.4. *The composition of any two Bernstein functions is Bernstein. Moreover, if $V: (0, \infty) \rightarrow (0, \infty)$ is bijective and V' is Bernstein, then the inverse function V^{-1} is Bernstein.*

Topologies. Any pointwise limit of a sequence of Bernstein functions is Bernstein. The topology of this pointwise convergence corresponds to a notion of weak convergence related to the associated Lévy triples in a way that is not fully characterized in [28], but may be described as follows. Let $\mathcal{M}_+[0, \infty]$ denote the space of nonnegative finite (Radon) measures on the compactified half-line $[0, \infty]$.

To each Lévy triple (a_0, a_∞, F) we associate a finite measure $\kappa \in \mathcal{M}_+[0, \infty]$ by appending atoms of magnitude a_0 and a_∞ respectively at 0 and ∞ to the finite measure $(x \wedge 1)F(dx)$, writing

$$\kappa(dx) = a_0\delta_0 + a_\infty\delta_\infty + (x \wedge 1)F(dx). \quad (3.4)$$

The correspondence $(a_0, a_\infty, F) \mapsto \kappa$ is bijective, as is the correspondence $(a_0, a_\infty, F) \rightarrow U$. We say that a sequence of finite measures κ_n converges weakly on $[0, \infty]$ to κ and write $\kappa_n \xrightarrow{w} \kappa$ if for each continuous $g: [0, \infty] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$\int_{[0, \infty]} g(x) \kappa_n(dx) \rightarrow \int_{[0, \infty]} g(x) \kappa(dx) \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Theorem 3.5. *Let $(a_0^{(n)}, a_\infty^{(n)}, F^{(n)})$, be a sequence of Lévy triples, with corresponding Bernstein transforms U_n and κ -measures κ_n on $[0, \infty]$. Then the following are equivalent:*

- (i) $U(s) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U_n(s)$ exists for each $s \in (0, \infty)$.
- (ii) $\kappa_n \xrightarrow{w} \kappa$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, where κ is a finite measure on $[0, \infty]$.

If either (i) or (ii) hold, then the respective limit U , κ is associated with a unique Lévy triple (a_0, a_∞, F) .

This result is essentially a restatement of Theorem 3.1 in [21], where different terminology is used. A simpler, direct proof will appear in [12], however.

For finite measures on $[0, \infty)$, the topology of pointwise convergence of Bernstein functions is related to more usual notions of weak convergence as follows. Let $\mathcal{M}_+[0, \infty)$ be the space of nonnegative finite (Radon) measures on $[0, \infty)$. Given $F, F_n \in \mathcal{M}_+[0, \infty)$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$, we say F_n converges to F *vaguely* on $[0, \infty)$ and write $F_n \xrightarrow{v} F$ provided

$$\int_{[0, \infty)} g(x) F_n(dx) \rightarrow \int_{[0, \infty)} g(x) F(dx) \quad (3.5)$$

for all functions $g \in C_0[0, \infty)$, the space of continuous functions on $[0, \infty)$ with limit zero at infinity. We say F_n converges to F *narrowly* and write $F_n \xrightarrow{n} F$ if (3.5) holds for all $g \in C_b[0, \infty)$, the space of bounded continuous functions on $[0, \infty)$. As is well-known [14, p. 264, Thm. 13.35], $F_n \xrightarrow{n} F$ if and only if both $F_n \xrightarrow{v} F$ and $m_0(F_n) \rightarrow m_0(F)$.

Denote the Laplace transform of any $F \in \mathcal{M}_+[0, \infty)$ by

$$\mathcal{L}F(s) = \int_{[0, \infty)} e^{-sx} F(dx). \quad (3.6)$$

By the usual Laplace continuity theorem, $F_n \xrightarrow{v} F$ if and only if $\mathcal{L}F_n(s) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}F(s)$ for all $s \in (0, \infty)$. Regarding narrow convergence, we will make use of the following result for the space $\mathcal{M}_+(0, \infty)$ consisting of finite nonnegative measures on $(0, \infty)$. We regard elements of this space as elements of $\mathcal{M}_+[0, \infty)$ having no atom at 0.

Proposition 3.6. *Assume $F, F_n \in \mathcal{M}_+(0, \infty)$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$. Then the following are equivalent as $n \rightarrow \infty$.*

- (i) F_n converges narrowly to F , i.e., $F_n \xrightarrow{n} F$.
- (ii) The Laplace transforms $\mathcal{L}F_n(s) \rightarrow \mathcal{L}F(s)$, for each $s \in (0, \infty)$.
- (iii) The Bernstein transforms $\check{F}_n(s) \rightarrow \check{F}(s)$, for each $s \in [0, \infty]$.
- (iv) The Bernstein transforms $\check{F}_n(s) \rightarrow \check{F}(s)$, uniformly for $s \in (0, \infty)$.

Proof. The equivalence of (i) and (ii) follows from the discussion above. Because

$$\check{F}_n(s) = \int_{(0, \infty)} (1 - e^{-sx}) F_n(dx), \quad \check{F}_n(\infty) = m_0(F_n) = \mathcal{L}F_n(0),$$

the equivalence of (ii) and (iii) is immediate. Now the equivalence of (iii) and (iv) follows from an extension of Dini's theorem due to Pólya [27, Part II, Problem 127], because \check{F}_n and \check{F} are continuous and monotone on the compact interval $[0, \infty]$. ■

Complete monotonicity. Our analysis of the equilibria of Model C relies on a striking result from the theory of so-called *complete* Bernstein functions, as developed in [28, Chap. 6]:

Theorem 3.7. *The following are equivalent.*

- (i) *The Lévy measure F in (3.1) has a completely monotone density g , so that*

$$U(s) = a_0 s + a_\infty + \int_{(0, \infty)} (1 - e^{-sx}) g(x) dx, \quad s \in (0, \infty). \quad (3.7)$$

- (ii) *U is a Bernstein function that admits a holomorphic extension to the cut plane $\mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty, 0]$ satisfying $(\operatorname{Im} s) \operatorname{Im} U(s) \geq 0$.*

In complex function theory, a function holomorphic on the upper half of the complex plane that leaves it invariant is called a *Pick function* or *Nevalinna-Pick function*. Condition (ii) of the theorem above says simply that U is a Pick function analytic and nonnegative on $(0, \infty)$. Such functions are called *complete Bernstein functions* in [28].

For our analysis of Model D, we will make use of an analogous criterion recently developed regarding sequences $(c_i)_{i \geq 0}$. Such a sequence is called completely monotone if all its backward differences are nonnegative:

$$(I - S)^k c_j \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } j, k \geq 0, \quad (3.8)$$

where S denotes the backshift operator, $S c_j = c_{j+1}$. The following result follows immediately from Corollary 1 in [18].

Theorem 3.8. *Let $c = (c_j)_{j \geq 0}$ be a real sequence with generating function*

$$G(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} c_j z^j. \quad (3.9)$$

Let $\lambda > 0$. Then the following are equivalent.

- (i) *The sequence $(c_j \lambda^j)$ is completely monotone.*
(ii) *G is a Pick function that is analytic and nonnegative on $(-\infty, \lambda)$.*

I Analysis of Model C

4 Equations for the continuous-size model

In this part of the paper we analyze the dynamics of Model C, requiring $A = B = 2$ as discussed above. Weak solutions of the model are then required to satisfy (the time-integrated version of) the equation

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} \varphi(x) F_t(dx) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}_+^2} (\varphi(x+y) - \varphi(x) - \varphi(y)) F_t(dx) F_t(dy) \\ &\quad - \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} \frac{1}{x} \int_0^x (\varphi(x) - 2\varphi(y)) dy F_t(dx), \end{aligned} \quad (4.1)$$

for all continuous functions φ on $[0, \infty]$.

In successive sections to follow, we study the existence and uniqueness of weak solutions, characterize the equilibrium solutions, and study the long-time behavior of solutions for both finite and infinite total population size.

Bernstein transform. The results will be derived through study of the equation corresponding to (4.1) for the Bernstein transform

$$U(s, t) = \check{F}_t(s) = \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} (1 - e^{-sx}) F_t(dx). \quad (4.2)$$

We obtain the evolution equation for \check{F}_t by taking $\varphi_s(x) = 1 - e^{-sx} = \varphi_1(sx)$ as test function in (4.1) and using the identities

$$-\varphi_s(x)\varphi_s(y) = \varphi_s(x+y) - \varphi_s(x) - \varphi_s(y), \quad (4.3)$$

$$\frac{1}{x} \int_0^x \varphi_1(sy) dy = 1 - \frac{1}{sx} \varphi_1(sx) = \frac{1}{s} \int_0^s \varphi_1(rx) dr.$$

Then for any weak solution F_t , the Bernstein transform must satisfy

$$\boxed{\frac{\partial U}{\partial t}(s, t) = -U^2 - U + \frac{2}{s} \int_0^s U(r, t) dr.} \quad (4.4)$$

This equation is not as simple as in the case of pure coagulation studied in [20], without linear terms, but it turns out to be quite amenable to analysis.

Eq. (4.4) has a dilational symmetry that corresponds to the symmetry that appears in (2.18). Namely, if $\hat{U}(s, t)$ is any solution of (4.4), then

$$U(s, t) = \hat{U}(s/L, t) \quad (4.5)$$

is another solution, for any constant $L > 0$.

Furthermore, the zeroth moment of any solution satisfies a logistic equation: By taking $\varphi \equiv 1$ in (4.1), we find that

$$m_0(F_t) = \int_{(0,\infty)} F_t(dx) \quad (4.6)$$

satisfies

$$\frac{d}{dt} m_0(F_t) = -m_0(F_t)^2 + m_0(F_t). \quad (4.7)$$

5 Equilibrium profiles for Model C

We begin the analysis of Model C by characterizing its equilibrium solutions. Due to (4.7), any non-zero steady-state solution $F_{\text{eq}}(dx)$ of Model C must have zeroth moment

$$m_0(F_{\text{eq}}) = 1. \quad (5.1)$$

In this section, we prove the following theorem.

Theorem 5.1. *There is universal smooth profile $f_\star: \mathbb{R}_+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$, such that every non-zero steady-state solution F_{eq} of Model C has a smooth density, taking the form $F_{\text{eq}}(dx) = f_{\text{eq}}(x) dx$, where*

$$f_{\text{eq}}(x) = \frac{1}{\mu} f_\star\left(\frac{x}{\mu}\right), \quad (5.2)$$

with first moment

$$\mu = m_1(F_{\text{eq}}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} x f_{\text{eq}}(x) dx \in (0, \infty).$$

The universal profile f_\star can be written as

$$f_\star(x) = \gamma_\star(x) e^{-\frac{4}{27}x}, \quad (5.3)$$

where γ_\star is a completely monotone function. Furthermore, γ_\star has the following asymptotic behavior:

$$\gamma_\star(x) \sim \frac{x^{-2/3}}{\Gamma(1/3)}, \quad \text{when } x \rightarrow 0, \quad (5.4)$$

$$\gamma_\star(x) \sim \frac{9}{8} \frac{x^{-3/2}}{\Gamma(1/2)}, \quad \text{when } x \rightarrow \infty, \quad (5.5)$$

and the profile satisfies

$$1 = \int_0^\infty f_\star(x) dx = \int_0^\infty x f_\star(x) dx = \frac{1}{6} \int_0^\infty x^2 f_\star(x) dx. \quad (5.6)$$

Remark 5.1. The profile f_\star is related to the profile Φ_\star that appeared in (1.3) as follows. Given any equilibrium density $f_{\text{eq}}(x) = f_\star(x/m_1)/m_1$, with $m_2 = m_2(f_{\text{eq}})$ we compute $x_{\text{av}} = m_2/m_1 = 6m_1$, and therefore

$$f_{\text{eq}}(x) = \frac{6}{x_{\text{av}}} f_\star\left(\frac{6x}{x_{\text{av}}}\right).$$

Thus we recover (1.3) and (1.4) with

$$\Phi_\star(x) = 6f_\star(6x), \quad g(x) = 6\gamma_\star(6x). \quad (5.7)$$

Remark 5.2. We mention that the same profiles as in (5.2) determine equilibrium solutions for coagulation-fragmentation equations with coagulation and fragmentation rates having the power-law form

$$a(x, y) = x^\alpha y^\alpha, \quad b(x, y) = (x + y)^{\alpha-1}. \quad (5.8)$$

Namely, for these rates, equilibria exist with the form

$$f_{\text{eq}}(x) = \frac{x^{-\alpha}}{\mu} f_\star\left(\frac{x}{\mu}\right). \quad (5.9)$$

5.1 The Bernstein transform at equilibrium

The proof of Theorem 5.1 starts by determining the possible steady solutions of equation (4.4) for the Bernstein transform. A time-independent solution $U = \check{F}_{\text{eq}}$ of (4.4) must satisfy

$$U(s)^2 + U(s) = \frac{2}{s} \int_0^s U(r) dr. \quad (5.10)$$

Differentiating with respect to s and eliminating the integral yields

$$\frac{1}{s} = \frac{(2U + 1)U'}{U(1 - U)} = \frac{U'}{U} + \frac{3U'}{1 - U}. \quad (5.11)$$

Because we must have $0 < U(s) < 1 = m_0(F)$ for all s , every relevant solution of this differential equation must satisfy $U(s) = U_\star(Cs)$ for some positive constant C , where

$$\boxed{\frac{U_\star(s)}{(1 - U_\star(s))^3} = s.} \quad (5.12)$$

Because $U(0) = 0$ it follows necessarily that

$$m_1(F_{\text{eq}}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} x F_{\text{eq}}(dx) = U'(0^+) = C. \quad (5.13)$$

Thus, in order to prove the theorem, it is necessary to show that the solution U_* of (5.12) is a Bernstein function taking the form

$$U_*(s) = \check{f}_*(s) = \int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-sx}) \gamma_*(x) e^{-\frac{4}{27}x} dx \quad (5.14)$$

where γ_* has the properties as stated. (We note that $-\frac{4}{27}$ is the minimum value of the function $u \mapsto u/(1-u)^3$, at $u = -\frac{1}{2}$.)

Remark. An explicit expression for the solution of (5.12) is given by

$$U_*(s) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{s}} \left(\left(\frac{\sqrt{s+s_0} + \sqrt{s}}{2} \right)^{1/3} - \left(\frac{\sqrt{s+s_0} - \sqrt{s}}{2} \right)^{1/3} \right)^3, \quad (5.15)$$

with $s_0 = \frac{4}{27}$. But we have not managed to derive any significant consequences from this.

5.2 Relation to Fuss-Catalan numbers

The Bernstein transform $U_*(s) = \check{f}_*(s)$ of the universal equilibrium profile for Model C turns out to be very closely related to the generating function of the *Fuss-Catalan numbers* with single parameter p , given by

$$B_p(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \binom{pn+1}{n} \frac{z^n}{pn+1}. \quad (5.16)$$

This function is well-known [9, 22] to satisfy

$$B_p(z) = 1 + zB_p(z)^p. \quad (5.17)$$

Consequently, as there is a unique real solution to $X = 1 - sX^3$ for $s > 0$, we find from (5.12) that

$$B_3(-s) = 1 - U_*(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-sx} f_*(x) dx, \quad (5.18)$$

and therefore

$$U_*(s) = - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \binom{3n+1}{n} \frac{(-s)^n}{3n+1}. \quad (5.19)$$

The function B_3 has the following properties, established in [18, Lemma 3].

Lemma 5.2. *The function B_3 is a Pick function analytic on $\mathbb{C} \setminus [\frac{4}{27}, \infty)$ and nonnegative on the real interval $(-\infty, \frac{4}{27})$.*

5.3 Proof of Theorem 5.1.

1. We infer from Lemma 5.2 that U_\star is a Pick function analytic on $(-\frac{4}{27}, \infty)$. Because $B_3(\frac{4}{27}) = \frac{3}{2}$ due to (5.17), we have

$$U_\star\left(-\frac{4}{27}\right) = -\frac{1}{2}. \quad (5.20)$$

We make the change of variables

$$V = U_\star + \frac{1}{2}, \quad z = s + \frac{4}{27}. \quad (5.21)$$

Then V is a Pick function analytic and nonnegative on $(0, \infty)$. Invoking Theorem 3.7, we deduce that V is a Bernstein function whose Lévy measure has a completely monotone density γ_\star . Note that $V(0^+) = 0$, and from (5.12) we have $U_\star(s) \rightarrow 1$ as $s \rightarrow \infty$, hence

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \frac{V(z)}{z} = \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \frac{U_\star(s)}{s} = (1 - U_\star(\infty))^3 = 0.$$

Therefore by Theorem 3.7 and (3.3) it follows that

$$V(z) = \int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-zx}) \gamma_\star(x) dx, \quad (5.22)$$

2. We will analyze the asymptotic behavior of $\gamma_\star(x)$ using Tauberian arguments, starting with the range $x \sim 0$. Because $1 - U_\star \sim s^{-1/3}$ as $s \rightarrow \infty$ due to (5.12), we can write

$$\frac{3}{2} - V(z) = \int_0^\infty e^{-zx} \gamma_\star(x) dx \sim z^{-1/3} \quad \text{as } z \rightarrow \infty. \quad (5.23)$$

By a result that follows from Karamata's Tauberian theorem [6, Thm. XIII.5.4], it follows

$$\gamma_\star(x) \sim \frac{x^{-2/3}}{\Gamma(1/3)} \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow 0.$$

3. Next we deal with limiting behavior as $x \rightarrow \infty$. Transformation of (5.12) yields

$$G(V(z)) = z, \quad G(V) = \frac{16 V^2 (9 - 2V)}{27 (3 - 2V)^3}. \quad (5.24)$$

We notice that

$$G(0) = G'(0) = 0 < G''(0) = 2 \left(\frac{4}{9} \right)^2, \quad (5.25)$$

and that G is monotone increasing from $[0, \frac{3}{2})$ onto $[0, +\infty)$. Denote by $G^{-1}(z)$ the inverse function of G , which is monotone increasing from $[0, +\infty)$ onto $[0, \frac{3}{2})$. Eq. (5.24) is equivalent to saying $V(z) = G^{-1}(z)$.

Thanks to (5.12), we can use Taylor's theorem to write

$$G(V) = \left(\frac{4}{9} V \right)^2 (1 + h(V))^2, \quad \text{as } V \rightarrow 0,$$

where $h(V)$ is analytic in the neighborhood of $V = 0$ and is such that $h(0) = 0$. Now, introducing $\zeta = \sqrt{z}$ where the complex square root is taken with branch cut along the interval $(-\infty, 0)$, Eq. (5.24) is written

$$\frac{4}{9} \tilde{V} (1 + h(\tilde{V})) = \zeta,$$

where $\tilde{V}(\zeta) = V(z)$. This equation shows that \tilde{V} is an analytic function of ζ in the neighborhood of $\zeta = 0$, such that

$$\tilde{V}(\zeta) = \frac{9}{4} \zeta + O(\zeta^2), \quad \tilde{V}'(\zeta) = \frac{9}{4} + O(\zeta).$$

Going back to $V(z)$, we find that as $z \rightarrow 0$, $V(z) \sim \frac{9}{4} z^{1/2}$ and

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-zx} x \gamma_\star(x) dx = V'(z) \sim \frac{9}{8} z^{-1/2}. \quad (5.26)$$

Although the Tauberian theorem cited previously does not apply directly (because we do not know $x \mapsto x \gamma_\star(x)$ is monotone), the selection argument used in the proof of Theorem XIII.5.4 from [6] works without change. It follows

$$x \gamma_\star(x) \sim \frac{9}{8} \frac{x^{-1/2}}{\Gamma(1/2)} \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

This proves (5.5) and completes the characterization of γ_\star .

4. Finally, by using (5.22) we may express U_\star in the form

$$U_\star(s) = \int_0^\infty \left(1 - e^{-\left(s + \frac{4}{27}\right)x} \right) \gamma_\star(x) dx - \frac{1}{2}. \quad (5.27)$$

Note that thanks to (5.22) we have

$$\int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-\frac{4}{27}x}) \gamma_\star(x) dx = V\left(\frac{4}{27}\right) = U_\star(0) + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Therefore, we can recast (5.27) into:

$$\begin{aligned} U_\star(s) &= \int_0^\infty \left(1 - e^{-\left(s + \frac{4}{27}\right)x}\right) \gamma_\star(x) dx - \int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-\frac{4}{27}x}) \gamma_\star(x) dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-sx}) e^{-\frac{4}{27}x} \gamma_\star(x) dx. \end{aligned} \quad (5.28)$$

By the uniqueness property of Bernstein transforms, this proves that $F_{\text{eq}}(dx) = f_\star(x) dx$ where f_\star is given by (5.3) as claimed. It remains only to discuss the moment relations in (5.6). We already know

$$m_0(f_\star) = U_\star(\infty) = 1, \quad m_1(f_\star) = U'_\star(0^+) = 1.$$

By multiplying (5.12) by $(1 - U_\star)^3$ and differentiating twice, one finds

$$m_2(f_\star) = -U''_\star(0^+) = 6.$$

This finishes the proof of Theorem 5.1. ■

5.4 Series expansion for the equilibrium profile

Start with the equation (5.12) and change variables via

$$s = z^{-3}, \quad W(z) = 1 - U_\star(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-sx} f_\star(x) dx, \quad (5.29)$$

to obtain

$$\frac{W}{\phi(W)} = z, \quad \phi(W) = (1 - W)^{1/3}.$$

By the Lagrange inversion formula (see [29, p. 128-133] and [11]), we find that

$$W = \sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n z^n = \sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n s^{-n/3}, \quad (5.30)$$

where na_n is the coefficient of w^{n-1} in the (binomial) series expansion of $\phi(w)^n$. Thus we find

$$a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} \binom{n/3}{n-1} = \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{3(n-1)!} \frac{\Gamma(n/3)}{\Gamma(2 - 2n/3)}. \quad (5.31)$$

Term-by-term Laplace inversion using $\int_0^\infty e^{-sx} x^{p-1} dx = \Gamma(p) s^{-p}$ with $p = n/3$ yields

$$f_\star(x) = \frac{x^{-2/3}}{3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\Gamma(\frac{4}{3} - \frac{2}{3}n)} \frac{x^{n/3}}{n!}. \quad (5.32)$$

Every third term of this series vanishes because of the poles of the Gamma function at negative integers. Replacing n by $3k$, $3k+1$, $3k+2$ respectively yields zero in the last case, and the series reduces to

$$f_\star(x) = \frac{x^{-2/3}}{3} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{(-1)^k}{\Gamma(\frac{4}{3} - 2k)} \frac{x^k}{(3k)!} + \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{\Gamma(\frac{2}{3} - 2k)} \frac{x^{k+1/3}}{(3k+1)!} \right). \quad (5.33)$$

6 Global existence and mass conservation

Next, we deal with the initial-value problem for Model C. Although this can be studied using rather standard techniques from kinetic theory, we find it convenient to study this problem using Bernstein function theory.

We require solutions take values in the space $\mathcal{M}_+(0, \infty)$, which we recall to be the space of non-negative finite measures on $(0, \infty)$. The main result of this section is the following.

Theorem 6.1. *Given any $F_{\text{in}} \in \mathcal{M}_+(0, \infty)$, there is a unique narrowly continuous map $t \mapsto F_t \in \mathcal{M}_+(0, \infty)$, $t \in (0, \infty)$ that satisfies (4.1). Furthermore,*

(i) *If the first moment $m_1(F_{\text{in}}) < \infty$, then*

$$m_1(F_t) = m_1(F_{\text{in}}) \quad (6.1)$$

for all $t \in [0, \infty)$, and $t \mapsto x F_t(dx) \in \mathcal{M}_+(0, \infty)$ is narrowly continuous.

(ii) *If $F_{\text{in}}(x) = f_{\text{in}}(x) dx$ where f_{in} is a completely monotone function, then for any $t \geq 0$, $F_t(dx) = f_t(x) dx$ where f_t is also a completely monotone function.*

Proof. We shall construct the solution F_t from an unconditionally stable approximation scheme restricted to a discrete set of times $t_n = n\Delta t$. We approximate F_{t_n} by measures F_n , discretizing the gain term from fragmentation explicitly, and the rest of the terms implicitly. We require that for

every test function φ continuous on $[0, \infty]$,

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} \varphi(x) (F_{n+1}(dx) - F_n(dx)) \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}_+^2} (\varphi(x+y) - \varphi(x) - \varphi(y)) F_{n+1}(dx) F_{n+1}(dy) \\ & \quad - \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} \varphi(x) F_{n+1}(dx) + \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} \frac{2}{x} \int_0^x \varphi(y) dy F_n(dx). \end{aligned} \quad (6.2)$$

Taking $\varphi(x) = 1 - e^{-sx}$ in particular, the above scheme reduces to the following implicit-explicit scheme for Eq. (4.4) for the Bernstein transform $U_n = \check{F}_n$: Given U_n , first compute

$$\hat{U}_n(s) = U_n(s) + 2\Delta t \int_0^1 U_n(s\tau) d\tau, \quad (6.3)$$

then determine $U_{n+1}(s)$ by solving

$$(1 + \Delta t)U_{n+1}(s) + \Delta t U_{n+1}(s)^2 = \hat{U}_n(s). \quad (6.4)$$

In order to construct a solution to the difference scheme (6.2), we first show by induction that for the solution of this scheme in (6.3)-(6.4), U_n is a Bernstein function for all $n \geq 0$. Naturally, $U_0 = \check{F}_{\text{in}}$ is Bernstein, so suppose U_n is Bernstein for some $n \geq 0$. Because the set of Bernstein functions is a convex cone that is closed under the topology of pointwise convergence, it is clear that \hat{U}_n is Bernstein. Now, the function

$$u \mapsto v = G_{\Delta t}(u) := (1 + \Delta t)u + \Delta t u^2$$

is bijective on $(0, \infty)$ and its inverse is given by

$$u = G_{\Delta t}^{-1}(v) = -\alpha + \sqrt{\alpha^2 + v/\Delta t}, \quad \alpha = \frac{1 + \Delta t}{2\Delta t}. \quad (6.5)$$

This function is Bernstein, and the composition $U_{n+1} = G_{\Delta t}^{-1} \circ \hat{U}_n$ is Bernstein, by Proposition 3.4.

Because $U_n(s)$ is increasing in s , it is clear that $\hat{U}_n(s) \leq (1 + 2\Delta t)U_n(s)$, and therefore that for all $n > 0$ and $s \in (0, \infty]$,

$$U_n(s) \leq \frac{1 + 2\Delta t}{1 + \Delta t} U_{n-1}(s) \leq e^{\Delta t} U_{n-1}(s) \leq e^{n\Delta t} U_0(s). \quad (6.6)$$

Therefore, for each $n \geq 0$, we have

$$U_n(0) = 0, \quad \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \frac{U_n(s)}{s} = 0,$$

$$U_n(\infty) \leq e^{n\Delta t} U_0(\infty) = e^{n\Delta t} m_0(F_{\text{in}}).$$

By (3.3), it follows $U_n = \check{F}_n$ for some finite measure $F_n \in \mathcal{M}_+(0, \infty)$.

We note that by the concavity of U_n and the bound (6.6), we have the following uniform bound on derivatives of U_n : for any positive $\sigma, \tau > 0$, as long as $(n+1)\Delta t \leq \tau$ and $s \in [\sigma, \infty)$,

$$U'_n(s) \leq \frac{U_n(s)}{s} \leq e^\tau \frac{U_0(s)}{s} \leq e^\tau \frac{U_0(\sigma)}{\sigma}, \quad (6.7)$$

and

$$\frac{1}{\Delta t} |U_{n+1}(s) - U_n(s)| \leq U_{n+1}(s) + U_{n+1}(s)^2 + 2U_n(s) \leq C(\tau). \quad (6.8)$$

Due to these bounds, the piecewise-linear interpolant in time is Lipschitz continuous, uniformly for (s, t) in any compact subset of $(0, \infty) \times [0, \infty)$. By passing to a subsequence, using the Arzela-Ascoli theorem and a diagonal extraction argument, we obtain a limit $U(s, t)$ continuous on $(0, \infty) \times [0, \infty)$ which is Bernstein for each fixed $t \geq 0$ and satisfies the time-integrated form of Eq. (4.4):

$$U(s, t) = U_0(s) + \int_0^t \left(-U^2 - U + \frac{2}{s} \int_0^s U(r, \tau) dr \right) d\tau. \quad (6.9)$$

By consequence, (4.4) holds. From (6.6), the function $U(s, t)$ inherits the bounds

$$U(s, t) \leq e^t U_0(s), \quad (6.10)$$

and we conclude

$$U(0, t) = 0, \quad \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \frac{U(s, t)}{s} = 0,$$

$$U(\infty, t) \leq e^t m_0(F_{\text{in}}).$$

As previously, by (3.3) we infer that for each $t \geq 0$, $U(s, t) = \check{F}_t$ for some finite measure $F_t \in \mathcal{M}_+(0, \infty)$, and $U(\infty, t) = m_0(F_t)$.

We may now deduce (4.7) by taking $s \rightarrow \infty$ in (6.9). (Indeed, because $U(s, t)$ increases as $s \rightarrow \infty$ toward $m_0(F_t)$, one finds $s^{-1} \int_0^s U(r, \tau) dr \rightarrow m_0(F_\tau)$ for each $\tau > 0$.) Because $t \mapsto \check{F}_t(s)$ is continuous for each $s \in [0, \infty]$,

we may now invoke Proposition 3.6 to conclude that $t \mapsto F_t$ is narrowly continuous.

At this point, we know that (4.1) holds for each test function of the form $\varphi(x) = 1 - e^{-sx}$, $s \in (0, \infty]$. Linear combinations of these functions are dense in the space of continuous functions on $[0, \infty]$. (This follows by using the homeomorphism $[0, \infty] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ given by $x \mapsto e^{-x}$ together with the Weierstrass approximation theorem.) Then because $m_0(F_t)$ is uniformly bounded, it is clear that one obtains (4.1) for arbitrary continuous φ on $[0, \infty]$ by approximation.

It remains to prove the further statements in (i) and (ii) of the Theorem. Suppose $m_1(F_{\text{in}}) < \infty$. Then we claim that the first moments of the sequence (F_n) remain constant:

$$m_1(F_n) = U'_n(0) = U'_0(0) = m_1(F_{\text{in}}) \quad (6.11)$$

for all $n \geq 0$. The proof by induction is as follows. Differentiating (6.3)-(6.4) we have

$$\hat{U}'_n(s) = U'_n(s) + 2\Delta t \int_0^1 U'_n(s\tau)\tau d\tau \rightarrow (1 + \Delta t)U'_n(0) \quad (6.12)$$

as $s \rightarrow 0$, and

$$(1 + \Delta t + 2\Delta t U_{n+1}(s))U'_{n+1}(s) = \hat{U}'_n(s) \rightarrow (1 + \Delta t)U'_{n+1}(0). \quad (6.13)$$

The claim follows.

Next we claim that the first moment of the limit F_t is also constant in time. To show this, first note that $U_n(s)/s \leq U'_n(0) = m_1(F_{\text{in}})$. Taking $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ we infer $U(s, t)/s \leq m_1(F_{\text{in}})$, and taking $s \rightarrow 0$ we get

$$m_1(F_t) = \partial_s U(0, t) \leq m_1(F_{\text{in}}).$$

Next note that because $U'_n(s)$ is decreasing in s , (6.12)-(6.13) imply

$$(1 + \Delta t + 2\Delta t U_{n+1}(s))U'_{n+1}(s) \geq (1 + \Delta t)U'_n(s). \quad (6.14)$$

Then by the bound (6.6), for $(n+1)\Delta t \leq \tau$ we have

$$\exp(2\Delta t e^\tau U_0(s)) U'_{n+1}(s) \geq (1 + 2\Delta t U_{n+1}(s)) U'_{n+1}(s) \geq U'_n(s),$$

where the last inequality follows by dividing (6.14) by $1 + \Delta t$. Therefore

$$\exp(2\tau e^\tau U_0(s)) U'_n(s) \geq U'_0(s). \quad (6.15)$$

This inequality persists in the limit, whence we infer by taking $s \rightarrow 0$ that $\partial_s U(0, t) \geq \partial_s U_0(0)$, meaning $m_1(F_t) \geq m_1(F_{\text{in}})$. This proves (6.1) holds.

Because $t \mapsto (x \wedge 1)F_t$ is weakly continuous on $[0, \infty]$ by the continuity theorem 3.5, and $m_1(F_t)$ is bounded, the finite measure $x F_t(dx)$ is vaguely continuous, hence it is narrowly continuous because $m_1(F_t)$ remains constant in time.

Finally we prove (ii). The hypothesis implies that U_0 is a complete Bernstein function by Theorem 3.7. Complete Bernstein functions form a convex cone that is closed with respect to pointwise limits and composition, according to [28, Cor. 7.6].

We prove by induction that U_n is a complete Bernstein function for every $n \geq 0$. For if U_n has this property, then clearly \hat{U}_n does. From the formula (6.5), $G_{\Delta t}^{-1}$ is a complete Bernstein function, as it is positive on $(0, \infty)$, analytic on $\mathbb{C} \setminus (-\infty, 0]$ and leaves the upper half plane invariant. Therefore U_{n+1} is completely Bernstein.

Passing to the limit as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, we deduce that $U(\cdot, t)$ is completely Bernstein for each $t \geq 0$. By the representation theorem 3.7, we deduce that the measure F_t has a completely monotone density as stated in (ii).

This completes the proof of Theorem 6.1, except for uniqueness. Uniqueness is proved by a Gronwall argument very similar to that used below in section 16 to study the discrete-to-continuum limit. We refer to Eqs. (16.1)–(16.5) and omit further details. \blacksquare

7 Convergence to equilibrium with finite first moment

In this section we prove that any solution with finite first moment converges to equilibrium in a weak sense. Our main result is the following.

Theorem 7.1. *Suppose $F_t(dx)$ is any solution of Model C with initial data F_0 having finite first moment $m_1 = m_1(F_0)$. Then we have*

$$F_t(dx) \xrightarrow{n} \frac{1}{m_1} f_\star(x/m_1) dx \quad (7.1)$$

and

$$xF_t(dx) \xrightarrow{n} \frac{1}{m_1} x f_\star(x/m_1) dx \quad (7.2)$$

narrowly, as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

Due to the scaling invariance of Model C, we may assume $m_1 = 1$ without loss of generality. To prove the theorem, the main step is to study Eq. (4.4) satisfied by the Bernstein transform $U(s, t) = \check{F}_t(s)$, and prove

$$\check{F}_t(s) \rightarrow \check{f}_\star(s) \quad \text{as } t \rightarrow \infty, \text{ for all } s \in [0, \infty). \quad (7.3)$$

We make use of the following proposition which will also facilitate the treatment of the discrete-size Model D later.

Proposition 7.2. *Let $\bar{s} > 0$, and suppose $U(s, t)$ is a C^1 solution of (4.4) for $0 < s < \bar{s}$, $0 \leq t < \infty$, such that for every $t \geq 0$, $s \mapsto U(s, t)$ is increasing and concave, with $U(0^+, t) = 0$ and $\partial_s U(0^+, t) = 1$. Then for all $s \in (0, \bar{s})$,*

$$U(s, t) \rightarrow U_\star(s) = \check{f}_\star(s) \quad \text{as } t \rightarrow \infty.$$

Proof. Step 1: Change variables. We write $U_0(s) = U(s, 0)$ and

$$U(s, t) = s(1 - v(s, t)), \quad U_\star(s) = s(1 - v_\star(s)), \quad U_0(s) = s(1 - v_0(s)). \quad (7.4)$$

Note $s \mapsto U(s, t)/s$ decreases, so $s \mapsto v(s, t)$ increases and $0 < v(s, t) < 1$. Writing

$$v(s, t) = v_\star(s) + w(s, t), \quad v_0(s) = v_\star(s) + w_0(s), \quad (7.5)$$

we have

$$-v_\star(s) \leq w(s, t) \leq 1 - v_\star(s), \quad w_0(s) = v_0(s) - v_\star(s) < v_0(s), \quad (7.6)$$

for all $s, t > 0$. Because $\partial_t U_\star = 0$, we find w satisfies

$$\partial_t w(s, t) = s(w + 2v_\star - 2)w - w + \frac{2}{s^2} \int_0^s w(r, t) r \, dr. \quad (7.7)$$

Step 2: Upper barrier. Our proof of convergence is based on comparison principles, which will be established with the aid of two lemmas.

Lemma 7.3. *There exists a decreasing function $\bar{b}(t) \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$ such that $\bar{b}(0) = 1$ and that for all $s \in (0, \bar{s})$ and $t > 0$,*

$$\partial_t \bar{w}(s, t) \geq -U_\star(s) \bar{w}(s, t), \quad \text{where} \quad \bar{w}(s, t) := v_0(s) \wedge \bar{b}(t).$$

Proof of Lemma 7.3. It suffices to choose $\bar{b}(t)$ to solve an ODE of the form

$$\partial_t b(t) = -\bar{J}(b(t)), \quad \bar{b}(0) = 1, \quad (7.8)$$

provided the function \bar{J} is chosen positive so that for all $s > 0$,

$$b < v_0(s) \quad \text{implies} \quad \bar{J}(b) \leq U_\star(s)b. \quad (7.9)$$

Let v_0^{-1} denote the inverse function. Then v_0^{-1} is increasing on its domain $[0, 1)$, with the property

$$b < v_0(s) \quad \text{implies} \quad v_0^{-1}(b) < s \quad \text{implies} \quad U_\star(v_0^{-1}(b)) < U_\star(s).$$

We may then let

$$\bar{J}(b) = U_\star \circ (v_0^{-1}(b \wedge \tfrac{1}{2})) \, b. \quad (7.10)$$

This expression is well-defined for all $b > 0$ and works as desired. \blacksquare

Lemma 7.4. *For all $s \in (0, \bar{s})$ and $t > 0$, $w(s, t) \leq \bar{w}(s, t)$.*

Proof of Lemma 7.4. Let $\varepsilon > 0$, $\bar{s} > 0$. We claim $w(s, t) < \bar{w}(s, t) + \varepsilon$ for all $t \geq 0$, $0 \leq s \leq \bar{s}$. This is true at $t = 0$ with $\bar{b}(0) = 1$. Note $w(0, t) = 0$ for all t . Suppose that for some minimal $t > 0$,

$$w(s, t) = \bar{w}(s, t) + \varepsilon \quad \text{with } 0 < s \leq \bar{s}.$$

Then $\partial_t w(s, t) \geq \partial_t \bar{w}(s, t)$. However, because $s \mapsto \bar{w}(s, t)$ is increasing, we have

$$\frac{2}{s^2} \int_0^s w(r, t) r \, dr < \frac{2}{s^2} \int_0^s (\bar{w}(r, t) + \varepsilon) r \, dr < \bar{w}(s, t) + \varepsilon = w(s, t),$$

Then

$$-w + \frac{2}{s^2} \int_0^s w(r, t) r \, dr < 0,$$

so, because $0 < w + v_\star \leq 1$ and $s(v_\star(s) - 1) = -U_\star(s) < 0$, we deduce from (7.7) that

$$\partial_t w(s, t) < s(v_\star(s) - 1)\bar{w} = -U_\star(s)\bar{w}(s, t) \leq \partial_t \bar{w}(s, t) \leq \partial_t w(s, t).$$

This contradiction proves the claim. Because $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\bar{s} > 0$ are arbitrary, the result of the Lemma follows. \blacksquare

Step 3: Lower barrier. In a similar way (we omit details) we can find $\underline{b}(t)$ increasing with $\underline{b}(t) \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$ such that for all $s \in (0, \bar{s})$ and $t > 0$,

$$\partial_t \underline{w}(s, t) \leq -U_\star(s) \underline{w}(s, t), \quad \text{where} \quad \underline{w}(s, t) := (-v_\star(s)) \vee \underline{b}(t). \quad (7.11)$$

(Here $a \vee b$ means $\max(a, b)$.) Then it follows $w(s, t) \geq \underline{w}(s, t)$ for all $s, t > 0$.

Now, because $\underline{w}(s, t) \leq w(s, t) \leq \bar{w}(s, t)$ and $\underline{w}(s, t), \bar{w}(s, t) \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$ for each $s > 0$, the convergence result for $U(s, t)$ in the Proposition follows. This finishes the proof of the Proposition. \blacksquare

Proof of Theorem 7.1. The result of the Proposition applies to the Bernstein transform $U(s, t) = \check{F}_t(s)$ for arbitrary $\bar{s} > 0$, and this yields (7.3). This finishes the main step of the proof, and it remains to deduce (7.1) and (7.2). We know that $m_0(F_t) = U(\infty, t) \rightarrow 1 = U_\star(\infty)$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$, hence by Proposition 3.6 it follows $F_t(dx) \rightarrow f_\star(x) dx$ narrowly as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

By consequence, because $m_1(F_t) \equiv 1$ is bounded, the measures $x F_t(dx)$ converge to $x f_\star(x) dx$ vaguely, and because $m_1(F_t) \equiv m_1(f_\star)$, this convergence also holds narrowly. This finishes the proof of the Theorem. \blacksquare

8 Weak convergence to zero with infinite first moment

Next we study the case with infinite first moment. If the initial data has infinite first moment, the solution converges to zero in a weak sense, with all clusters growing asymptotically to infinite size, loosely speaking.

Theorem 8.1. *Assume $m_1(F_{\text{in}}) = \int_0^\infty x F_{\text{in}}(dx) = \infty$. Then as $t \rightarrow \infty$,*

$$F_t(dx) \xrightarrow{v} 0$$

vaguely on $[0, \infty)$, while $m_0(F_t) \rightarrow 1$.

Proof. The main step of the proof involves showing that

$$U(s, t) \rightarrow 1 \quad \text{as } t \rightarrow \infty, \quad \text{for all } s \in (0, \infty). \quad (8.1)$$

The assumption $m_1 = \infty$ implies $\partial_s U(0^+, 0) = \infty$. Then for any positive constant k , we compare with a solution corresponding to $F_0(dx) = k a^2 e^{-ax} dx$, whose Bernstein transform is

$$u_0(s) = \int_0^\infty (1 - e^{-sx}) k a^2 e^{-ax} dx = \frac{kas}{a+s}.$$

Note that

$$u_0(0) = 0, \quad \partial_s u_0(0) = k, \quad (8.2)$$

and for a sufficiently small we have

$$u_0(s) < U_0(s) \quad \text{for all } s > 0. \quad (8.3)$$

This is so because $u_0(s) \leq k(s \wedge a)$, while U_0 is increasing with $U_0(s) \geq ks$ for all s sufficiently small.

Let $u(s, t)$ denote the solution of equation (4.4) with initial data $u(s, 0) = u_0(s)$ for $s > 0$. By a comparison argument similar to that above, we have

$$u(s, t) \leq U(s, t) \quad \text{for all } s, t > 0.$$

Because $u(s/k, t)$ is also a solution of (4.4), with first moment equal to 1, it follows from Theorem 7.1 that for every $s > 0$, $u(s/k, t) \rightarrow \check{f}_\star(s)$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$, hence due to the dilational invariance of (4.4) we have

$$u(s, t) \rightarrow \check{f}_\star(ks) \quad \text{as } t \rightarrow \infty, \text{ for every } s > 0. \quad (8.4)$$

It follows that for every $s > 0$,

$$\liminf_{t \rightarrow \infty} U(s, t) \geq \check{f}_\star(ks). \quad (8.5)$$

This is true for every $k > 0$, hence we infer

$$\liminf_{t \rightarrow \infty} U(s, t) \geq 1. \quad (8.6)$$

On the other hand, we know $U(s, t) \leq m_0(t) \rightarrow 1$ from (4.7). Therefore we conclude $U(s, t) \rightarrow 1$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

Because $m_0(F_t) = U(\infty, t) \rightarrow 1$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$, we have

$$m_0(F_t) - U(s, t) = \int_0^\infty e^{-sx} F_t(dx) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{for all } s \in (0, \infty).$$

Hence, $F_t(dx) \xrightarrow{v} 0$ by the standard continuity theorem for Laplace transforms. ■

9 No detailed balance for Model C

Here we verify that the size-continuous Model C admits no equilibrium finite measure solution $F_*(dx)$ supported on \mathbb{R}_+ that satisfies a natural weak form of the detailed balance condition. First, note that the detailed balance condition (2.9) for the discrete coagulation-fragmentation equations can be written in a weak form by requiring that for any bounded sequence $(\psi_{i,j})_{i,j \in \mathbb{N}^*}$

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^{\infty} \psi_{i,j} a_{i,j} f_i f_j = \sum_{i=2}^{\infty} \left(\sum_{j=1}^i \psi_{i-j,j} b_{i-j,j} \right) f_i . \quad (9.1)$$

For a general coagulation-fragmentation equation in the form (2.10), we will say that F_* satisfies detailed balance in weak form if for any smooth bounded test function $\psi(x, y)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbb{R}_+^2} \psi(x, y) a(x, y) F_*(dx) F_*(dy) = \\ \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} \left(\int_0^x \psi(x-y, y) b(x-y, y) dy \right) F_*(dx) . \end{aligned} \quad (9.2)$$

Note that if some F_* exists satisfying this condition, then it is an equilibrium solution of (2.10), as one can check by taking

$$\psi(x, y) = \varphi(x+y) - \varphi(x) - \varphi(y) .$$

Theorem 9.1. *For Model C, no finite measure F_* on $(0, \infty)$ exists that satisfies condition (9.2) for detailed balance in weak form.*

Proof. Recall that $a(x, y) = 2$, $b(x, y) = 2/(x+y)$ for Model C. By taking $\psi(x, y) = 1$ in (9.2) we find $m_0(F_*)^2 = m_0(F_*)$, so a nontrivial solution requires $m_0(F_*) = 1$. Next, with $\psi(x, y) = 1 - e^{-sy}$ we find

$$\check{F}_*(s) = \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} \frac{e^{-sx} - 1 + sx}{sx} F_*(dx) =: \frac{G(s)}{s} ,$$

for all $s > 0$. We compute that $G'(s) = \check{F}_*(s) = G(s)/s$, whence $G(s) = Cs$ for some constant $C > 0$. But this gives $\check{F}_*(s) \equiv C$, which is not possible for a finite measure F_* supported in $(0, \infty)$. \blacksquare

Remark 9.1. If detailed balance holds in the general weak form (9.2), there is a formal H theorem in the following sense: Assume the measure $F_t(dx)$ is absolutely continuous with respect to $F_*(dx)$ for all t , with Radon-Nikodym derivative $f_t(x)$ so that $F_t(dx) = f_t(x)F_*(dx)$. Then the weak-form coagulation-fragmentation equation (2.10) takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} \varphi(x) f_t(x) F_*(dx) = \\ \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}_+^2} (\varphi(x+y) - \varphi(x) - \varphi(y)) (f_t(x)f_t(y) - f_t(x+y)) K_*(dx, dy), \end{aligned} \quad (9.3)$$

where $K_*(dx, dy) = a(x, y)F_*(dx)F_*(dy)$. If we now put

$$\mathcal{H} = \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} f_t(x) (\ln f_t(x) - 1) F_*(dx), \quad (9.4)$$

$$\mathcal{I} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{\mathbb{R}_+^2} \left(\frac{f_t(x+y)}{f_t(x)f_t(y)} - 1 \right) \ln \frac{f_t(x+y)}{f_t(x)f_t(y)} K_t(dx, dy), \quad (9.5)$$

where $K_t(dx, dy) = f_t(x)f_t(y)K_*(dx, dy)$, then $\mathcal{I} \geq 0$ and formally

$$\frac{d}{dt} \mathcal{H} + \mathcal{I} = 0. \quad (9.6)$$

II Analysis of Model D

10 Equations for the discrete-size model

As discussed in section 2.3, we take $\alpha = \beta = 2$ in the expression (2.7) for the coagulation and fragmentation rates to get the equations for Model D that will be studied below. In weak form we require that for any bounded test sequence (φ_i) ,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \varphi_i f_i(t) &= \sum_{i,j=1}^{\infty} (\varphi_{i+j} - \varphi_i - \varphi_j) f_i(t) f_j(t) \\ &\quad + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left(-\varphi_i + \frac{2}{i+1} \sum_{j=1}^i \varphi_j \right) f_i(t). \end{aligned} \quad (10.1)$$

In strong form, the system is written as follows:

$$\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial t}(t) = Q_a(f)_i(t) + Q_b(f)_i(t), \quad (10.2)$$

$$Q_a(f)_i(t) = \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} f_j(t) f_{i-j}(t) - 2 \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} f_i(t) f_j(t), \quad (10.3)$$

$$\begin{aligned} Q_b(f)_i(t) &= -f_i(t) + 2 \sum_{j=i}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j+1} f_j(t) \\ &= -\left(\frac{i-1}{i+1}\right) f_i(t) + 2 \sum_{j=i+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j+1} f_j(t). \end{aligned} \quad (10.4)$$

Bernstein transform. It is useful to describe the long-time dynamics of the discrete model in terms of the Bernstein transform of the discrete measure $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} f_j(t) \delta_j(dx)$. We define

$$\check{f}(s, t) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} (1 - e^{-js}) f_j(t). \quad (10.5)$$

Taking the test function $\varphi_j = 1 - e^{-js}$ in (10.1) and using the fact that

$$\varphi_{i+j} - \varphi_i - \varphi_j = -\varphi_i \varphi_j,$$

we find that $\check{f}(s, t)$ satisfies the equation

$$\boxed{\partial_t \check{f}(s, t) = -\check{f}^2 - \check{f} + 2A_1(\check{f})}, \quad (10.6)$$

for any $s, t > 0$, where

$$\begin{aligned}
 A_1(\check{f})(s, t) &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{f_i(t)}{i+1} \sum_{j=0}^i (1 - e^{-sj}) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_i(t) \left(1 - \frac{1}{1 - e^{-s}} \int_0^s e^{-r(i+1)} dr \right) \\
 &= \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{f_i(t)}{1 - e^{-s}} \int_0^s (1 - e^{-ri}) e^{-r} dr \\
 &= \frac{1}{1 - e^{-s}} \int_0^s \check{f}(r, t) e^{-r} dr.
 \end{aligned} \tag{10.7}$$

Eq. (10.6) is a nonlocal analog of the logistic equation that one would obtain if the averaging term $2A_1(\check{f})$ were replaced by $2\check{f}$.

It is very remarkable that Eq. (10.6) for the Bernstein transform of Model D transforms *exactly* into Eq. (4.4) for the Bernstein transform of Model C, by a simple change of variables. With

$$\sigma = 1 - e^{-s}, \quad u(\sigma, t) = \check{f}(s, t), \tag{10.8}$$

one finds that (10.6) for $s \in (0, \infty)$, $t > 0$, is equivalent to

$$\partial_t u(\sigma, t) = -u^2 - u + \frac{2}{\sigma} \int_0^\sigma u(r, t) dr, \tag{10.9}$$

for $\sigma \in (0, 1)$, $t > 0$. This equation will be used below in sections 11 and 13 below to study the equilibria and long-time behavior of solutions to Model D.

11 Equilibrium profiles for Model D

As will become clear from the well-posedness theory to come, any equilibrium solution $f = (f_i)$ of Model D has a finite zeroth moment

$$m_0(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_i.$$

Theorem 11.1. *For every $\mu \in [0, \infty)$ there is a unique equilibrium solution f_μ of Model D such that*

$$m_1(f_\mu) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i f_{\mu i} = \mu.$$

The solution has the form

$$f_{\mu i} = \gamma_{\mu i} \lambda_{\mu}^{-i}, \quad \lambda_{\mu} = 1 + \frac{4}{27\mu}, \quad (11.1)$$

where γ_{μ} is a completely monotone sequence with the asymptotic behavior

$$\gamma_{\mu i} \sim \frac{9}{8} \left(\frac{\mu \lambda_{\mu}}{\pi} \right)^{1/2} i^{-3/2} \quad \text{as } i \rightarrow \infty. \quad (11.2)$$

Every equilibrium solution has the form f_{μ} for some μ .

Proof. To start the proof of the theorem, let $f = (f_i)$ be a nonzero equilibrium solution of Model D with Bernstein transform $\check{f}(s)$. Change variables to $\sigma = 1 - e^{-s} \in (0, 1)$ as in (10.8) and introduce $u(\sigma) = \check{f}(s)$, $\sigma \in (0, 1)$. Then u is a stationary solution of (10.6) and satisfies (5.10), and it follows that

$$u(\sigma) = U_{\star}(\mu\sigma), \quad \text{or} \quad \check{f}(s) = U_{\star}(\mu - \mu e^{-s}), \quad (11.3)$$

for some $\mu \in (0, \infty)$. Then by differentiation it follows that

$$\mu = u'(0) = \check{f}'(0) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i f_i = m_1(f). \quad (11.4)$$

Note that by (5.12) the zeroth moment of f satisfies

$$m_0(f) = \check{f}(\infty) = U_{\star}(\mu), \quad \frac{m_0(f)}{(1 - m_0(f))^3} = \mu. \quad (11.5)$$

Generating function. The properties of the equilibrium sequence f shall be derived from the behavior of the *generating function*

$$G(z) := \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} f_i z^i, \quad (11.6)$$

where we find it convenient (see section 14 below) to define

$$f_0 = 1 - m_0(f) = 1 - U_{\star}(\mu). \quad (11.7)$$

Complete monotonicity. Due to (11.3) and (11.7), we have

$$U_{\star}(\mu\sigma) = \check{f}(s) = 1 - G(e^{-s}) = 1 - G(1 - \sigma).$$

Hence by (5.18), we obtain

$$\boxed{G(z) = B_3(\mu(z-1))}. \quad (11.8)$$

By Lemma 5.2 (from [18]), G is a Pick function analytic and nonnegative on the interval $(-\infty, \lambda_\mu)$ where $\lambda_\mu = 1 + \frac{4}{27\mu}$. Nonnegativity, and indeed complete monotonicity, of the sequence γ_μ given by

$$\gamma_{\mu i} = f_i \lambda_\mu^i, \quad (11.9)$$

now follows immediately from Theorem 3.8.

Asymptotics. The decay rate of the sequence f shall be deduced from the derivative of $G(z)$ using Tauberian arguments, as developed in the book of Flajolet and Sedgewick [7].

Recall that $U_\star(s)$ has a branch point at $s = -\frac{4}{27}$, with $U'_\star(s - \frac{4}{27}) \sim \frac{9}{8}s^{-1/2}$ due to (5.26). The generating function $G(z)$ has a corresponding branch point at $z = \lambda_\mu$.

We rescale, replacing z by $\lambda_\mu z$ to write

$$G(\lambda_\mu z) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \gamma_{\mu i} z^i = 1 - U_\star(\mu(1 - \lambda_\mu z))$$

Then differentiate, writing $\hat{\lambda} = \mu\lambda_\mu$, to find that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i \gamma_{\mu i} z^{i-1} &= \hat{\lambda} U'_\star(\mu(1 - \lambda_\mu z)) = \hat{\lambda} U'_\star\left(\hat{\lambda}(1 - z) - \frac{4}{27}\right) \\ &\sim \frac{9\hat{\lambda}^{1/2}}{8} (1 - z)^{-1/2} \end{aligned} \quad (11.10)$$

By Corollary VI.1 from [7] we deduce that as $i \rightarrow \infty$,

$$i \gamma_{\mu i} \sim \frac{9\hat{\lambda}^{1/2}}{8} \frac{(i-1)^{-1/2}}{\Gamma(1/2)} \sim \frac{9\hat{\lambda}^{1/2}}{8} \frac{i^{-1/2}}{\Gamma(1/2)},$$

This yields (11.2), since $\Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}$. ■

11.1 Recursive computation of equilibria for Model D

At equilibrium, the profile is required to satisfy

$$0 = \sum_{i,j=1}^{\infty} (\varphi_{i+j} - \varphi_i - \varphi_j) f_i f_j + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left(-\varphi_i + \frac{2}{i+1} \sum_{j=1}^i \varphi_j \right) f_i. \quad (11.11)$$

Define

$$\nu_0 = m_0(f) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} f_j, \quad \beta_i = \sum_{j=i}^{\infty} \frac{1}{j+1} f_j. \quad (11.12)$$

Taking $\varphi_j \equiv 1$ yields

$$0 = -\nu_0^2 - \nu_0 + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{i}{i+1} f_i = -\nu_0^2 + \nu_0 - 2\beta_1. \quad (11.13)$$

Next, taking $\varphi_k = 1$ if $k = i$ and 0 otherwise yields

$$0 = \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} f_j f_{i-j} - (2\nu_0 + 1)f_i + 2\beta_i, \quad i \geq 1. \quad (11.14)$$

Based on these equations, we can compute the f_j recursively, in a manner analogous to the computation of equilibria in the models studied by Ma et al. in [19]. Starting from any given value of the parameter $\nu_0 \in (0, 1)$, set β_1 according to (11.13), defining

$$\beta_1 = \frac{1}{2}(\nu_0 - \nu_0^2). \quad (11.15)$$

Then for $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ compute

$$f_i = (1 + 2\nu_0)^{-1} \left(2\beta_i + \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} f_j f_{i-j} \right), \quad (11.16)$$

$$\beta_{i+1} = \beta_i - \frac{f_i}{i+1}. \quad (11.17)$$

These formulae are used to compute the discrete profile that is compared to the continuous profile f_\star in Figure 2 in section 15 below.

12 Well-posedness for Model D

Here we consider the discrete dynamics described by Eqs. (10.1)–(10.4), and establish well-posedness of the initial-value problem by a simple strategy of proving local Lipschitz estimates on an appropriate Banach space.

We first introduce some preliminary notations. For $k \in \mathbb{R}$, and a real sequence $f = (f_i)_{i=1}^{\infty}$, we define the k -th moment $m_k(f)$ of f and associated norm $\|f\|_k$ by:

$$m_k(f) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i^k f_i, \quad \|f\|_k = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i^k |f_i|.$$

We introduce the Banach space $\ell_{1,k}$ as the vector space of sequences f with finite norm $\|f\|_k < \infty$ and denote the positive cone in this space by

$$\ell_{1,k}^+ = \{f \in \ell_{1,k} \text{ such that } f_i \geq 0 \text{ for all } i\}.$$

Theorem 12.1. *Let $k \geq 0$ and let $f_{\text{in}} = (f_{\text{in},i})_{i=1}^\infty$ be given in $\ell_{1,k}^+$. Then there exists a unique global-in-time solution $f \in C^1([0, \infty), \ell_{1,k}^+)$ for system (10.1)–(10.4) with initial condition $f(0) = f_{\text{in}}$. Moreover, f is C^∞ , and for all $t \geq 0$ we have*

$$\partial_t m_0(f(t)) \leq -m_0(f(t))^2 + m_0(f(t)), \quad (12.1)$$

and

$$m_0(f(t)) \leq m_0(f_{\text{in}}) + 1. \quad (12.2)$$

If $k \geq 1$, then $m_1(f(t)) = m_1(f_{\text{in}})$ for all $t \geq 0$.

Proof. We first transform the problem to simplify the proof of positivity. Fix $\lambda = 2m_0(f_{\text{in}}) + 3$ and change variables using $\hat{f}_i(t) = e^{\lambda t} f_i(t)$. Then Eq. (10.1) is equivalent to

$$\frac{\partial \hat{f}_i}{\partial t} = Q_\lambda(\hat{f})_i := \lambda \hat{f}_i + Q_a(\hat{f})_i e^{-\lambda t} + Q_b(\hat{f})_i. \quad (12.3)$$

Using the inequality $i^k \leq 2^k(j^k + (i-j)^k)$, we find that the quadratic map $f \mapsto Q_a(f)$ is locally Lipschitz on $\ell_{1,k}$, satisfying

$$\begin{aligned} 2^{-k-1} \|Q_a(f) - Q_a(g)\|_k &\leq \|f - g\|_k (\|f\|_0 + \|g\|_0) \\ &\quad + \|f - g\|_0 (\|f\|_k + \|g\|_k). \end{aligned} \quad (12.4)$$

Also, the linear map $f \mapsto Q_b(f)$ is bounded on $\ell_{1,k}$, due to the estimate

$$\sum_{i=1}^\infty i^k \sum_{j=i}^\infty \frac{1}{j+1} |f_j| = \sum_{j=1}^\infty \sum_{i=1}^j \frac{i^k}{j+1} |f_j| \leq \sum_{j=1}^\infty j^k |f_j|.$$

Consequently, we have local existence of a unique smooth solution \hat{f} to (12.3) with values in $\ell_{1,k}$, and a corresponding smooth solution f to (10.1). If $k \geq 1$, then because $f \mapsto m_1(f)$ is bounded on $\ell_{1,k}$, we find $m_1(f(t))$ is constant in time by taking $\varphi_i = i$ in (10.1).

It remains to prove positivity and global existence, for any $k \geq 0$. The solution \hat{f} is the limit of Picard iterates $\hat{f}^{(n)}$ starting with $\hat{f}^{(0)}(t) \equiv f_{\text{in}}$. Note that the coefficient of \hat{f}_i in $Q_\lambda(\hat{f})_i$ is, from (10.3)–(10.4),

$$\lambda - 2m_0(\hat{f})e^{-\lambda t} - \frac{i-1}{i+1} > 2(\hat{M} - m_0(\hat{f})e^{-\lambda t}), \quad \hat{M} := \frac{\lambda-1}{2}.$$

Let $\nu_n(t) = m_0(\hat{f}^{(n)}(t))e^{-\lambda t}$. We show by induction the following statement: For all $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$, for all $t \geq 0$ in the interval of existence,

$$0 \leq \nu_n(t) \leq \hat{M} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{f}_i^{(n)}(t) \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } i. \quad (12.5)$$

For the induction step, note that by the induction hypothesis, $Q_\lambda(\hat{f}^{(n)})_i \geq 0$ for all i , therefore $\hat{f}_i^{(n+1)}(t) \geq 0$ for all i and $t \geq 0$. We also have

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} Q_a(\hat{f}^{(n)}(t))_i e^{-\lambda t} = -\nu_n(t)^2 e^{\lambda t}, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} Q_b(\hat{f}^{(n)}(t))_i \leq \nu_n(t) e^{\lambda t},$$

hence

$$e^{-\lambda t} \partial_t (e^{\lambda t} \nu_{n+1}) = e^{-\lambda t} \partial_t m_0(\hat{f}^{(n+1)}) \leq \lambda \nu_n - \nu_n^2 + \nu_n \leq \lambda \hat{M}. \quad (12.6)$$

The last inequality holds because $x \mapsto \lambda x - x^2 + x$ increases on $[0, \hat{M}]$ and $\hat{M} > 1$. Upon integration we deduce $0 \leq \nu_{n+1}(t) \leq \hat{M}$.

Taking $n \rightarrow \infty$, we find that $\hat{f}_i(t) \geq 0$ and $m_0(\hat{f}(t)) \leq \hat{M} e^{\lambda t}$, hence

$$f(t) = e^{-\lambda t} \hat{f}(t) \in \ell_{1,k}^+ \quad \text{and} \quad m_0(f(t)) \leq \hat{M}$$

on the maximal interval of existence. Due to the local Lipschitz bounds established above, the solution can be continued to exist in $\ell_{1,k}^+$ for all $t \in [0, \infty)$.

To obtain (12.1), take $\varphi_i \equiv 1$ in (10.1), or take $s \rightarrow \infty$ in (10.6). \blacksquare

13 Long-time behavior for Model D

By using much of the same analysis as in the continuous-size case, we obtain strong convergence to equilibrium for solutions with a finite first moment, and weak convergence to zero for solutions with infinite first moment.

Theorem 13.1 (Strong convergence with finite first moment). *Let $f(t) = (f_i(t))$ be any solution of Model D with initial data having finite first moment $\mu = m_1(f_{\text{in}})$, so $f_{\text{in}} \in \ell_{1,1}^+$. Then the solution converges strongly to the equilibrium solution f_μ having the same first moment:*

$$\|f(t) - f_\mu\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i |f_i(t) - f_{\mu i}| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } t \rightarrow \infty. \quad (13.1)$$

Proof. Let $\check{f}(s, t)$ from (10.5) be the Bernstein transform of the solution, and let $\mu = m_1(f)$ be the first moment (constant in time). Similarly to (10.8), we change variables according to

$$\sigma = \mu(1 - e^{-s}), \quad u(\sigma, t) = \check{f}(s, t) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \left(1 - \frac{\sigma}{\mu}\right)^i\right) f_i(t). \quad (13.2)$$

This function $u(\sigma, t)$ then is a solution to (10.9) for $0 < \sigma < \mu$ and has the properties that for all $t > 0$, $u(0, t) = 0$ and $\sigma \mapsto u(\sigma, t)$ is increasing and concave.

We now invoke Proposition 7.2 with $\bar{s} = \mu$, and conclude that as $t \rightarrow \infty$, $u(\sigma, t) \rightarrow U_*(\sigma)$ for all $\sigma \in (0, \mu)$. It follows that

$$\check{f}(s, t) \rightarrow \check{f}_\mu(s) \quad \text{for all } s > 0.$$

By the continuity theorem 3.5, it follows that as $t \rightarrow \infty$, the discrete measures

$$F_t(dx) = \sum_i f_i(t) \delta_i(dx) \xrightarrow{w} F_\mu(dx) = \sum_i f_{\mu i} \delta_i(dx)$$

weakly on $[0, \infty]$. But this implies $f_i(t) \rightarrow f_{\mu i}$ for every $i \in \mathbb{N}^*$. Then (13.1) follows, see [2, Lemma 3.3], for example. \blacksquare

Theorem 13.2 (Weak convergence to zero with infinite first moment). *Let $f(t)$ be any solution of Model D with initial data $f_{\text{in}} \in \ell_{1,0}$ having infinite first moment. Then as $t \rightarrow \infty$ we have $f_i(t) \rightarrow 0$ for all i , and*

$$m_0(f(t)) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_i(t) \rightarrow 1.$$

Remark 13.1. The conclusion means that the total number of groups $m_0(f(t)) \rightarrow 1$, while the number of groups of any fixed size i tends to zero. Thus as time increases, individuals cluster in larger and larger groups, leaving no groups of finite size in the large-time limit.

Proof. We use the change of variables in (10.8) and obtain a solution $u(\sigma, t)$ to (10.9) that satisfies $\partial_\sigma u(0^+, 0) = \infty$. By the same arguments as in the proof of Theorem 8.1, we obtain the analog of (8.6), namely

$$\liminf_{t \rightarrow \infty} u(\sigma, t) \geq 1 \quad \text{for all } \sigma \in (0, 1). \quad (13.3)$$

We know, though, that $u(\sigma, t) \leq m_0(f(t))$ and that

$$\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} m_0(f(t)) \leq 1$$

due to (12.1). It follows that $m_0(f(t)) \rightarrow 1$ and $\check{f}(s, t) \rightarrow 1$ for all $s > 0$. Therefore the Laplace transform $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} e^{-si} f_i(t) \rightarrow 0$, and the conclusions of the Theorem follow. ■

III From discrete to continuous size

14 Discretization of Model C

In this section, we discuss how a particular discretization of Model C is naturally related to Model D. We start from the weak form of Model C expressed in (4.1). Introduce a grid size $h > 0$, corresponding to a scaled size increment, and introduce the approximation

$$f_i^h \approx \int_{I_i^h} F_t(dx), \quad I_i^h := (ih, (i+1)h], \quad i = 0, 1, \dots \quad (14.1)$$

for the number of clusters with size in the interval I_i^h . (We find it convenient to not scale this number by the width of I_i^h , for purposes of comparison.)

Then by formal discretization of the integrals in (4.1) by the left-endpoint rule, we require

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \varphi(ih) \frac{df_i^h}{dt}(t) &= \sum_{i,j=0}^{\infty} \left(\varphi((i+j)h) - \varphi(ih) - \varphi(jh) \right) f_i^h(t) f_j^h(t) \\ &\quad + \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left(-\varphi(ih) + \frac{2}{i+1} \sum_{j=0}^i \varphi(jh) \right) f_i^h(t). \end{aligned} \quad (14.2)$$

“*Ghost*” clusters. Because of the left-endpoint discretization, the sums in (14.2) start with $i, j = 0$. Note, however, that if we take $\varphi(0) = 0$ and $\varphi_i = \varphi(ih)$, all terms with $i = 0$ or $j = 0$ drop, and Eq. (14.2) becomes identical to the weak form of Model D in (10.1). Thus, the dynamics of the sequence $(f_i^h(t))_{i=1}^{\infty}$ is governed exactly by Model D, and is decoupled from the behavior of $f_0^h(t)$. The equation governing f_0^h corresponds to the coefficient of $\varphi(0)$ in Eq. (14.2) and takes the form

$$\partial_t f_0^h(t) = -(f_0^h)^2 - 2f_0^h \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_i^h + f_0^h + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i+1} f_i^h. \quad (14.3)$$

We see the behavior of $f_0^h(t)$ is slaved to that of $(f_i^h(t))_{i=1}^{\infty}$.

In the discrete-size model, f_0^h has the interpretation as number density of clusters whose size is less than the bin width h . Merging and splitting interactions with such clusters have a negligible effect upon dynamics in the discrete approximation, so we can say these clusters become “ghosts.” It is sometimes convenient, however, to include them in the tally of total cluster

numbers, for the following reason: Taking $\varphi \equiv 1$ in (14.2) we find that the quantity

$$\hat{\nu}_0(t) := m_0 \left((f_i^h(t))_{i=0}^\infty \right) = \sum_{i=0}^\infty f_i^h(t)$$

is an exact solution of the logistic equation:

$$\partial_t \hat{\nu}_0(t) = -\hat{\nu}_0^2 + \hat{\nu}_0. \quad (14.4)$$

(Recall that without the $i = 0$ term, we have only the inequality (12.1).) Naturally $\hat{\nu}_0 = 1$ in equilibrium, which helps to explain the convenient choice of f_0 in (11.7): The function G in (11.6) is the generating function of $(f_i)_{i=0}^\infty$, an equilibrium for Model D extended to include ghost clusters.

Bernstein transform. By taking $\varphi(x) = 1 - e^{-sx}$, we obtain the h -scaled Bernstein transform

$$U^h(s, t) = \sum_{i=1}^\infty (1 - e^{-shi}) f_i^h(t) = \check{F}_t^h(s), \quad (14.5)$$

where F_t^h is the discrete measure on the grid $\{ih : i = 1, \dots\}$ formed from the solution $f(t) = (f_i^h(t))_{i=1}^\infty$ of Model D:

$$F_t^h(dx) = \sum_{i=1}^\infty f_i^h(t) \delta_{ih}(dx) .$$

(Ghost clusters would have no effect on U^h , and we do not include them here, in order to focus on how Model D compares to Model C.) The function U^h satisfies the following scaled variant of (10.6):

$$\boxed{\partial_t U^h(s, t) = -(U^h)^2 - U^h + 2A_h(U^h)}, \quad (14.6)$$

where the scaled averaging operator

$$A_h(U^h)(s, t) = \frac{h}{1 - e^{-sh}} \int_0^s U^h(r, t) e^{-rh} dr . \quad (14.7)$$

In the limit $h \rightarrow 0$, the operator A_h reduces formally to the running average operator A_0 as defined by

$$A_0(U)(s) := \frac{1}{s} \int_0^s U(r) dr . \quad (14.8)$$

15 Limit relations at equilibrium

At equilibrium, $f^h = (f_i^h)_{i=1}^\infty$ is constant in time, and the zeroth and first moments satisfy

$$\nu_h = m_0(F^h) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_i^h, \quad \mu_h = m_1(F^h) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} i h f_i^h. \quad (15.1)$$

Because f^h is an equilibrium solution of Model D, from relations (11.4)–(11.5) we find that these moments are related by

$$\frac{\nu_h}{(1 - \nu_h)^3} = \frac{\mu_h}{h}. \quad (15.2)$$

If we consider the rescaled mass μ_h as fixed, the leading behavior of ν_h as $h \rightarrow 0$ is given by

$$\nu_h \sim 1 - (h/\mu_h)^{1/3}. \quad (15.3)$$

In these terms, the tail behavior of the Model D equilibrium from Theorem 11.1 can be recast in the form

$$\frac{1}{h} f_i^h \sim \frac{1}{\mu_h} \frac{9}{8\sqrt{\pi}} \left(\frac{i h}{\mu_h} \right)^{-3/2} \left(1 + \frac{4}{27} \frac{h}{\mu_h} \right)^{-i+\frac{1}{2}}, \quad i \rightarrow \infty. \quad (15.4)$$

As $h \rightarrow 0$ and $i \rightarrow \infty$ with $i h \rightarrow x$ and $\mu_h \rightarrow \mu$, the right-hand side converges to

$$\frac{1}{\mu} \frac{9}{8\sqrt{\pi}} \left(\frac{x}{\mu} \right)^{-3/2} \exp \left(-\frac{4}{27} \frac{x}{\mu} \right). \quad (15.5)$$

This is consistent with the large-size asymptotic behavior of the solution of Model C with first moment μ from Theorem 5.1.

We have the following rigorous convergence theorem for the continuum limit of the discrete equilibria.

Theorem 15.1. *Let f^h be a family of equilibria of Model D and let $F^h(dx) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_i^h \delta_{ih}$. If $\mu_h = m_1(F^h) \rightarrow \mu$ as $h \rightarrow 0$, then F^h converges narrowly to $F_{\text{eq}}(dx) = f_{\text{eq}}(x) dx$ where*

$$f_{\text{eq}}(x) = \frac{1}{\mu} f_{\star} \left(\frac{x}{\mu} \right).$$

Proof. The Bernstein transform of the scaled discrete size distribution $F^h(dx) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} f_i^h \delta_{ih}$ has the following representation, due to (11.3):

$$\check{F}^h(s) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} (1 - e^{-s i h}) f_i^h = U_{\star} \left(\mu_h \frac{1 - e^{-s h}}{h} \right). \quad (15.6)$$

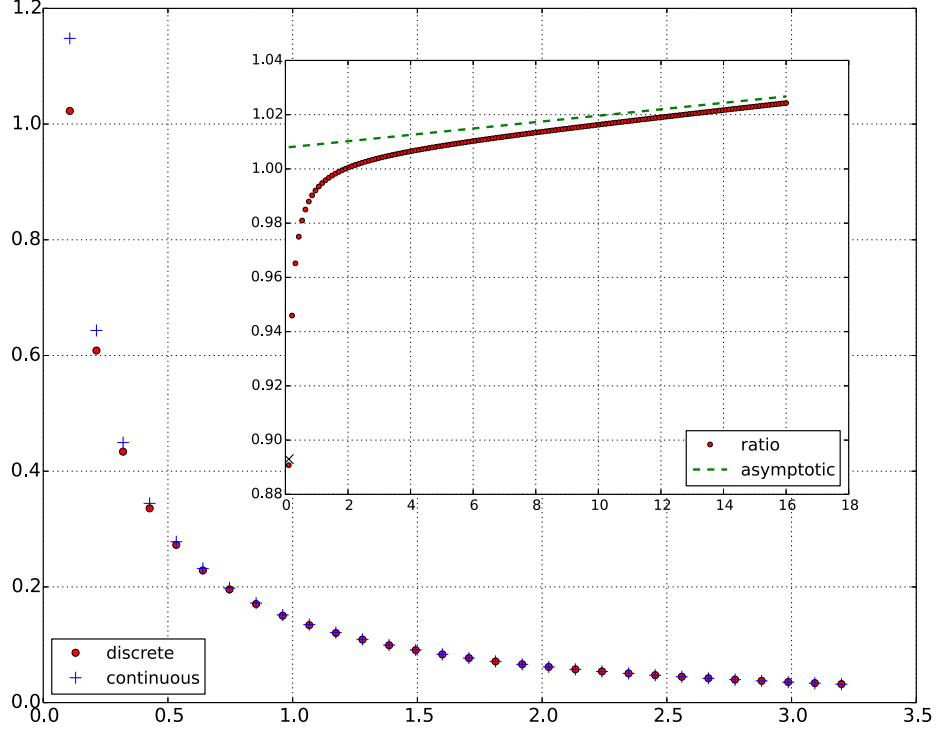


Figure 2: Discrete and continuous profiles: f_i^h/h and $f_*(ih)$ vs. ih for $\nu_h = 0.6$, $\mu_h = 1$, $h = 0.10667$. Inset: Ratio $(f_i^h/h)/f_*(ih)$ and asymptotics in (15.7) vs. ih . Cross in inset at $(h, \frac{1}{3}\Gamma(\frac{1}{3})) \approx (0.1, 0.893)$, see (15.9).

As $h \rightarrow 0$, from (15.6) we have $\check{F}^h(s) \rightarrow \check{F}_{\text{eq}}(s) = U_*(\mu s)$, for every $s \in [0, \infty]$. Now the result follows from Proposition 3.6. \blacksquare

See Figure 2 for a comparison of the discrete and continuous profiles f_i^h/h and $f_*(ih)$, for the parameters $\nu_h = 0.6$, $\mu_h = \mu = 1$, corresponding to $h = 0.1066\bar{6}$. In the inset we compare the ratio of these profiles with the asymptotic expression coming from (15.4)–(15.5),

$$\frac{f_i^h/h}{f_*(ih)} \sim \exp\left(\frac{4ih}{27}\right) \left(1 + \frac{4h}{27}\right)^{-i+\frac{1}{2}}, \quad (15.7)$$

which reflects the different exponential decay rates for the discrete and continuous profiles. The discrete profile also exhibits a transient behavior for

small i , starting from the value

$$\frac{1}{h}f_1^h = \frac{\nu_h - \nu_h^2}{1 + 2\nu_h} \frac{\nu_h}{(1 - \nu_h)^3} \sim \frac{1}{3}h^{-2/3}, \quad (15.8)$$

coming from (11.16), (15.2) and (15.3). The asymptotic value of the ratio

$$(f_1^h/h)/f_\star(h) \sim \frac{1}{3}\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) \quad (15.9)$$

(with $f_\star(h)$ approximated by (5.3)-(5.4) in Theorem 5.1) is plotted as a cross at the point $(h, \frac{1}{3}\Gamma(\frac{1}{3}))$ in the inset.

16 Discrete-to-continuum limit

We can rigorously prove a weak-convergence result for time-dependent solutions of Model D to solutions of Model C, as follows.

Theorem 16.1. *Let F be a solution of Model C with initial data F_0 a finite measure on $(0, \infty)$, and let f^h , $h \in I$ be solutions of Model D with initial data that satisfy $F_0^h \rightarrow F_0$ narrowly as $h \rightarrow 0$. Then for each $t > 0$, we have $F_t^h \rightarrow F_t$ narrowly as $h \rightarrow 0$.*

Proof of the Theorem. 1. The Bernstein functions $U^h = \check{F}_t^h$ and $U = \check{F}_t$ satisfy (14.6) and (4.4) respectively. For h small enough, these functions are uniformly bounded globally in time by $C_0 = m_0(F_0) + 2$, due to the fact that $m_0(F_0^h) \rightarrow m_0(F_0)$ and the bounds coming from (4.7) and (12.2).

2. Next we let

$$\omega(s, t) = (U - U^h)(s, t), \quad \Omega(s, t) = \sup_{0 < r \leq s} |(U - U^h)(r, t)|,$$

and compute

$$\partial_t \omega(s, t) = -\omega(U + U^h + 1) + 2A_h(\omega) + 2(A_0(U) - A_h(U)). \quad (16.1)$$

Observe that $|A_h(\omega)(s, t)| \leq \Omega(s, t)$, and that

$$A_0(U) - A_h(U) = \frac{1}{s} \int_0^s U(r, t) \left(1 - \frac{she^{-rh}}{1 - e^{-sh}}\right) dr$$

satisfies the bound

$$|A_0(U) - A_h(U)| \leq U(s, t)\eta_0(sh), \quad (16.2)$$

where

$$\eta_0(s) := \sup_{0 < r < s} \left| 1 - \frac{s}{1 - e^{-s}} e^{-r} \right| \xrightarrow{s \rightarrow 0} 0. \quad (16.3)$$

Now we multiply Eq. (16.1) by 2ω and integrate in time to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \omega(s, t)^2 - \omega(s, 0)^2 &\leq \int_0^t 4\omega(s, \tau)(\Omega(s, \tau) + C_0\eta_0(sh)) d\tau \\ &\leq \int_0^t 8\Omega(s, \tau)^2 d\tau + tC_0^2\eta(sh)^2. \end{aligned} \quad (16.4)$$

Taking the sup over $s \in [0, \hat{s}]$ and using a standard Gronwall argument we infer that for any $s \in (0, \infty)$ and $t > 0$,

$$\sup_{0 < r < s} |(U - U^h)(r, t)| = \Omega(s, t) \leq e^{4t} \left(\Omega(s, 0) + \sqrt{t}C_0\eta(sh) \right) \rightarrow 0 \quad (16.5)$$

as $h \rightarrow 0$.

3. We separately study the case $s = \infty$, writing

$$\hat{m}^h(t) = m_0(F_t^h) = U^h(\infty, t), \quad \hat{m}(t) = m_0(F_t) = U(\infty, t).$$

Due to (14.6) and (4.7), these moments satisfy

$$\partial_t \hat{m}^h(t) \leq -(\hat{m}^h)^2 + \hat{m}^h, \quad \partial_t \hat{m}(t) = -(\hat{m})^2 + \hat{m}. \quad (16.6)$$

By the assumption that initial data converge narrowly, we have $\hat{m}^h(0) \rightarrow \hat{m}(0)$, and it is not difficult to deduce that for each $t > 0$,

$$\limsup_{h \rightarrow 0} \hat{m}^h(t) \leq \hat{m}(t).$$

Now, however, by the monotonicity of $s \mapsto U^h(s, t)$, we have

$$U(s, t) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} U^h(s, t) \leq \liminf_{h \rightarrow 0} \hat{m}^h(t).$$

Because we know from Theorem 6.1 that $\hat{m}(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} U(s, t)$, we deduce $\hat{m}^h(t) \rightarrow \hat{m}(t)$ as $h \rightarrow 0$.

The narrow convergence $F_t^h \rightarrow F_t$ now follows from Proposition 3.6. \blacksquare

Remark 16.1. Uniqueness for Model C is proved by a simple Gronwall estimate analogous to (16.5). We omit details.

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